

GUJARĀT
AND
ITS LITERATURE
FROM EARLY TIMES TO 1852

BY
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FOREWORD BY
MAHATMA GANDHI



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DEDICATED
TO
MAHATMA GANDHI

*Like unto the Prophet of Israel
you have led your people out of bondage*



MIRANBAI

FOREWORD

The only reason for inviting me to write a foreword to a literary work such as Shri Munshi's can be that I am called 'Mahatma' I can make no literary pretensions My acquaintance with Gujarati and for that matter any literature, is, for no fault of mine, next to nothing Having led a life of intense action since early youth I have had no opportunity of reading except in prisons whether in South Africa or in India Shri Munshi's survey of Gujarati literature has made fascinating reading for me His miniature pen-portraits of writers give one a fair introduction to their writings

Shri Munshi's estimate of our literary achievement appears to me to be very faithful The survey naturally confines itself to the language understood and spoken by the middle class Commercially-minded and self-satisfied, their language has naturally been 'effeminate and sensuous' Of the language of the people we know next to nothing We hardly understand their speech The gulf between them and us the middle class is so great that we do not know them and they know still less of what we think and speak

The dignified persistence of Shri Devendra Satyarthi, a writer whom I do not remember to have ever met, has made me peep into his remarkable collection of folk songs of the provinces he has been travelling in They are the literature of the people The middle classes of the provinces to which the songs belong are untouched by them, even as we of Gujarat are untouched by the songs of folk, i.e. the language of the masses of Gujarat Meghani of the Saurashtra school has done folklore research in Kathiawar His researches show the gulf that exists between the language of the people and ours

But the folklore belongs to an order of things that is passing away, if it has not already done so There is an awakening among the masses They have begun not with thought but with action, as I suppose they always do Their language has yet to take definite shape It is to be

found somewhat, but only somewhat, in the newspapers, not in books. Shri Munshi's work therefore may be said to have only commenced with the volume before me. It was necessary. But he has to continue the work so well begun. He has the requisite passion for his work. If he has health, he will now go direct to the people and find out what they are thinking, and he will give expression to their thoughts. The unquestionable poverty of Gujarati is a token of the poverty of the people. But no language is really poor. We have hardly had time to speak since we have begun to act. Gujarat like the rest of India is brooding. The language is shaping itself. There is enough work awaiting writers like our author.

Munshi has alluded to Parsi-Gujarati. So there is. It is unfortunate that there is Parsi-Gujarati. It is confined to novels and stories of the shilling shocker style. They are meant merely for passing the idle hour. The language is tortured out of shape. And just as there is Parsi-Gujarati there is also Muslim-Gujarati though on a much humbler scale. It is impossible to ignore these two streams. They are not wells of Gujarati undefiled. But no reviewer of Gujarati literature can afford to ignore the existence of works which hundreds, if not thousands, of Parsis and Muslims read and by which, may be, even shape part of their conduct.

M K GANDHI

PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION

The preface to the first edition of this work was dated March 5, 1935

The book has now been out of print for several years and I am happy to find that at least the first part of the second edition of the work is being published after eighteen years. As stated in the preface of the first edition of this book, I was indebted to Messrs Longmans, Green & Co Ltd, both for inducing me to write it, as also for publishing the book, but now that the copyright in all my works has been transferred to the Bharatiya Vidya Bhavan, which has a publishing department of its own, that distinguished firm has been good enough, at my request, to reassign the copyright in the work to the Bhavan. I take this opportunity of thanking them not only for publishing the first edition, but also for their kindness in relinquishing their rights in this generous manner.

This work in its second edition had to be divided into two parts for several reasons. As the original work was written in jail, the materials at my disposal were limited. My studies in the history of Gujarat of the period between A D 550 and 1300, now published under the title 'Imperial Gurjaras' has also led me to revise my outlook on that period, this involved the revision of part I 'Prakrit, Samskrit and Apabhramśa (A C 200? - 1297)'. The modern period (1852-1932) also has had to be overhauled, because the literary achievements of the authors living in 1933 have to be brought up to date and a survey of literature from 1934 to 1953 has to be written—a task for which I have little time at my disposal. Since 1934 the political, social and economic conditions of Gujarat also have, with the other parts of the country, undergone revolutionary changes and both the Preface and the Introduction, in so far as they relate to the modern period, have to be reconsidered in their light.

As the work has been divided into two, the introductory remarks relevant to this volume only have been retained. Gandhiji's preface and a part of the old preface have been reproduced to maintain the continuity.

It is hoped that the Second Volume will be published in a few months.

Raj Bhavan, Lucknow,
December 1, 1953

K M MUNSHI

PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION

This book fulfils a desire, cherished for many years, to place a connected story of Gujarāt and its literature before the English-reading public. The invitation which the Chairman of the Post Graduate Studies in the Calcutta University extended to me about the end of 1929 to deliver a series of lectures on Gujarati Literature provided the necessary opportunity. The invitation remained unavailed of as I joined the Civil Disobedience movement in April 1930, but gaol life, which immediately supervened, provided the necessary leisure to translate the desire into effort.

A systematic history of the Gujarati literature cannot yet be written. With the materials at our disposal it is well-nigh impossible to reconstruct the past life of Gujarāt, or to read its inner meaning accurately, and in this work, therefore, I have attempted only to describe, in a connected form, its historical and literary currents. This book was written mainly during the two and a half years between 1930-1934 which I spent in gaol. During this period, as I sat writing in my prison cell, Gujarāt passed through a fiery ordeal. When I came out in December 1933 the book was already in the press and I found it impossible to introduce any new impressions, but from what little I could see I remained convinced that my analysis of the currents in modern Gujarāt did not require a revision. The immediate after-effects of an ordeal are always deceptive, they may appear to, but do not, alter habits and tendencies which belong to one's nature.

I confess to finding great difficulty in assessing the value of contemporary works. The difficulty has been much greater as no such review was possible without a reference to the work of my wife and myself. The choice before me was either to bring the book up-to-date, or to close it with the year 1913 and leave untouched a glorious historical and literary age of Gujarāt. This age claims the best works of Narsinhrao, Khabardar and Nanalal. It has given birth to promising creative tendencies in

modern literature It also includes amongst its achievements the literary output of Mahatma Gandhi, and the emergence of Gujarāt on the stage of world politics and literature What to do with myself, while writing about this period, was the most trying problem of all, and I am indebted to my friend Dr I J S Taraporevala for coming to my rescue with a chapter, which, perhaps, does me more justice than I deserve

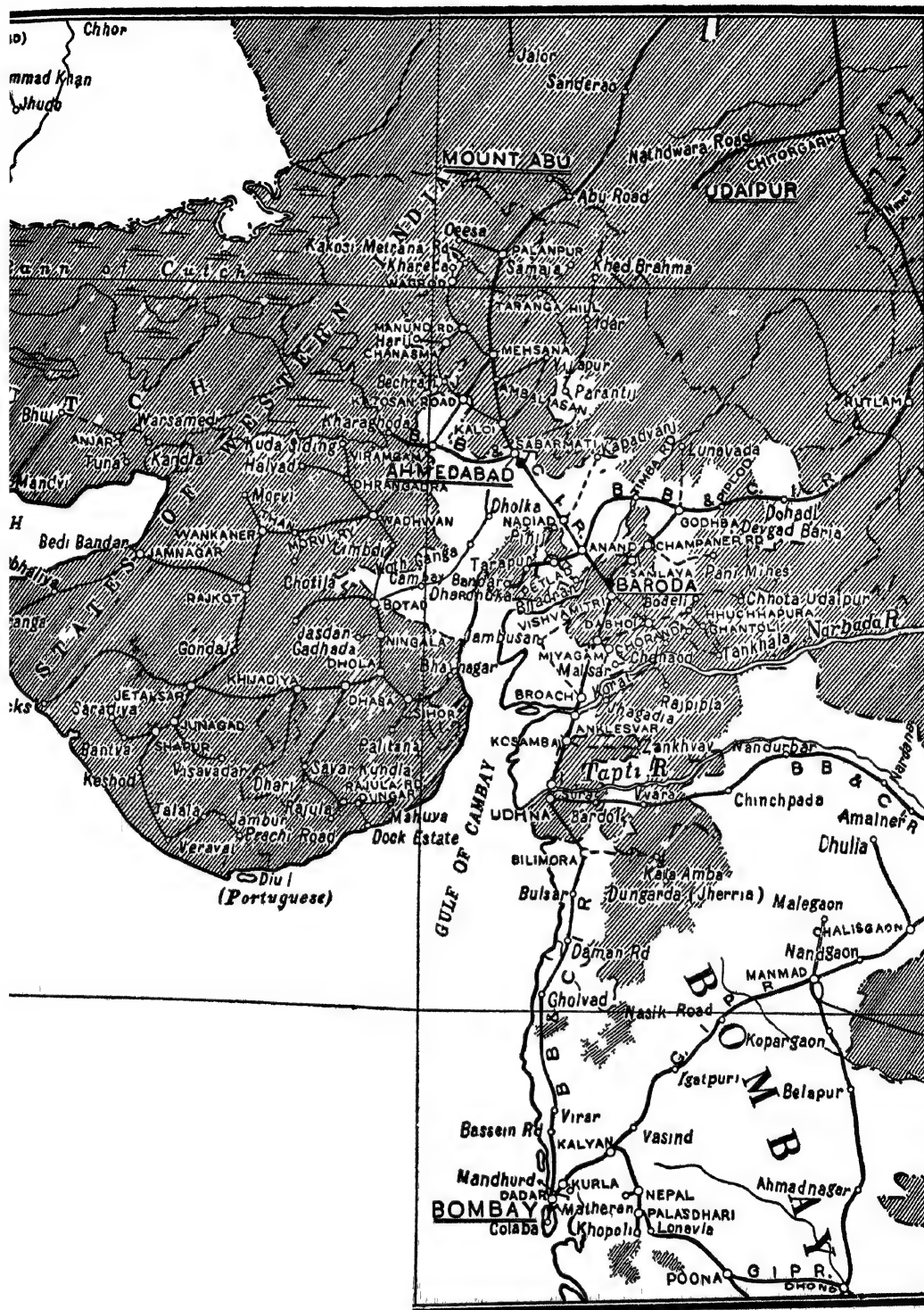
In the book itself I have restricted myself to a descriptive and critical sketch of the literature of every period on the background of its historical setting, but modern Gujarati literature or its future possibility cannot be properly understood without realising the great change which is daily coming over the life of the province or appraising the forces which are bringing it about

* * *

I am deeply obliged to Mahatma Gandhi for his kindness in contributing a foreword to this work and to Dr A B Keith and Ācārya Dhruva for their appreciation of it My cordial thanks are also due to several friends for their encouragement and assistance in making the completion of this book possible I am also grateful to the Government of Bombay and the officials of different jails in which I happened to be, for their unfailing courtesy in giving me the necessary facilities for writing the book, and to Messrs Longmans, Green & Co, Ltd, for the promptitude with which they undertook to publish it

26, Ridge Road,
Bombay, 5th March, 1935

K M MUNSHI



INTRODUCTION

GUJARĀT A PERSPECTIVE

I

The nature of the life and literature which give to a country a living unity depend mainly upon its geographical peculiarities, the economic factors which develop common interests and aptitudes among its inhabitants, and the cultural influences which glisten through the fabric of social and religious institutions. These determinants impose the national character upon the people and upon all that they do and express.

The life of Gujarāt records the interplay of two factors (a) the individuality of the Gujaratis expressed through a consciously directed group life, and (b) the influence of the culture which, originating with the early Aryans, has maintained the homogeneity of Indian life and the continuity of its traditions for the last three thousand years. To the first, Gujarāt owes its outlook on life, its social institutions, its language and literature, and the urge to remain a single social organism. The second has created forces which stimulate and unify its collective impulses impelling it to find a greater self-fulfilment in the corporate life of India.

Gujarāt occupies an important part of the western seaboard of India from Sindh to Bombay. The term Gujarāt is used in two different senses: firstly, to denote the mainland between Mount Abu and the river Damanganga, and secondly, the much larger language field in which Gujarati is spoken.

In the latter sense, Gujarāt's northern linguistic boundary touches the states of Sirohi and Māravād where Maravadi is spoken, and includes the districts of Thar and Parkar in Sindh, as also Kaccha. Kaccha, for cultural and literary purposes, has always been regarded as part of Gujarāt.

The southern boundary in a sense is projected by the Damanganga. In these parts of the Thana District and the islands of Salsette and Bombay where Gujarātis live side by side with other linguistic groups, each group speaks its own language, but lives a common life.

The eastern boundary starting from the Sahya ridges, runs along the state of Dharampur, joins the eastern frontier of Palanpur, and extends along the Aravalī hills, partly enclosing within it the Bhil settlements in which the dialect spoken is largely influenced by Gujarātī. Further east, beyond the region of the Bhils, lie the eastern and southern parts of Rājputana with Jaipurī and Malvī as their dialects. Both these dialects are closely allied to Gujarātī, the Bhil dialect forming a sort of connecting link between the two.

II

Gujarāt consists of regions which in some respects are different from one another. They are (i) North Gujarāt, the mainland between Mount Abu and the river Mahī, (ii) South Gujarāt, the mainland between the Mahī and the Damanganga, (iii) The tract south of the Damanganga up to and inclusive of the multilingual island of Salsette and Bombay, where Gujarātī is partially spoken, (iv) the peninsula of Saurashtra, and (v) Kaccha may also be considered as part of Gujarātī language area for certain purposes.

In the earliest times the memory of which is preserved in traditional history, North Gujarat was called Ānartta, after the eponymous king Ānartta, son of Vairavasvata Manu. The *Mahābhārata* treats Saurashtra as included in Ānartta, its original capital was Kuśasthālī believed to have been destroyed by the Punyajana Rāksasas, who are identified with the Paṇikas of the *Vedas* and the pre-historic Phoenicians. Sometimes Ānartta, together with the adjoining region of Sindhu-Sauvīra was also referred to as one country.

In mythic times what is Gujarāt and Mālva now were occupied by a federation of tribes called Haihaya Tālajanghas and their conqueror Sahasrārjuna has been considered one of the earliest emperors in traditional history.

Apart, therefore, from the aborigines, styled Nāgas, this region might have been occupied by homogeneous tribes of the swarm of Aryans that first entered India and whom Grierson calls 'the outer band of Aryans'. And the Yādavas, allied to the Haihayas, were possibly the first Inner band Aryans who migrated to Saurāshtra.

Baudhāyana Dharma Sūtras include Ānartta among those impure countries to which an Aryan was forbidden to go. But all the same, it does not appear to be an unimportant region. Its later capital, Ānandapura or Ānarapura (modern Vadnagar) was a city of great learning and importance and continued to be so till about the tenth century. Ānartta, however, formed part of the empires of the Mauryas, Greeks, of the Śāka Kshatrapas and of the Guptas. On the decline of the Gupta empire, Ānartta formed part of the kingdom of Valabhīpura. In the seventh century Saurāshtra, Ānartta and the region between the Sarasvatī and the Narmadā, then called Mālava formed part first of the kingdom of Valabhī and later that of Bhīllamāla or Srimāla near Mount Abu, which was the capital.

From about the end of the eighth century Ānartta with Saurāshtra and south Gujarāt up to Kim, formed part of the empire of Imperial Pratihāras. When in A.D. 940 the empire of Kanauj broke up, Mūlarāja established himself in the principality of Anahīlavāda Pātana; after Siddharāja the word *Gurjara-Mandala*, *Gurjara-Bhūmi*, *Gurjara-Deśa*, came to be applied to whatever territory which the Chaulukyas claimed as their domain. In A.D. 1141 Gurjaradeśa included Dohad, but parts of south Gujarāt were merged in Gurjaradeśa after the conquests of Siddharāja and Kumārapāla, and generally called by that name.

The original Ānartta that was first included in the kingdom of the Gurjaras however remained in the popular mind as Gujarāt proper and even now the local pride of the residents of north Gujarāt will not allow that any area is genuine except their own.

III

Aparānta, which was identified with North Konkan by R. G. Bhandarkar, presents some difficulties, as the same

name was used in different ages to indicate different geographical concepts In *Mahābhārata*, Aparānta is mentioned more than once it is included within the *janapadas* of the north (*ūrddhva*)¹ though its exact location is not stated, but Konkana is said in the same context to be in the south² Hence it can be inferred that in the *Mahābhārata* age, Aparānta and Konkana were not identical Again we learn from *Mahābhārata* that Arjuna visited all the holy places in Aparānta up to Prabhāsa,³ which is in Kathiawad Hence it may be concluded that according to *Mahābhārata* Aparānta stretched from Kathiawad to Konkan

In one of his Rock Edicts⁴ Aśoka says “*Yona-Kamboya Gandhārānam Rathikanam-Pitṇikanam ye vā pi (amne) Aparānta*” literally this means “such other *aparāntas*”, that is Yaunas, Kāmbojas, Gāndhāras, Rathikas, Pitṇikas, and ‘such other western ruling races and their countries or states’ Thus Aśokan Aparānta is applied to the north-western as well as to the south-western peoples and their countries

In Buddhist literature, we come across the name Sunaparānta,⁵ or simply Aparānta⁶ Sunaparānta was in Buddhist times a country on the western sea board of India of which the chief town was Śūrpāraka, now known as Sopara The people of Sunaparānta were known to the preachers of early Buddhism as fierce and rude *chanda pharusa*, it was at Sopara that one set of rock edicts was set up

In the Junagadh inscription,⁷ Mahākshatrpa Rudradāman (A D 51) is described as the lord of the east and west, Ākarāvanti, the Anūpa country, Ānarta, Surāshtra, Śvabhra, Maru, Kachchha, Sindhu-Sauvīra, Kukura, Aparānta and Nishāda The Nasik cave inscription of Vāsīthiputra Śrī-Pulumāvī (c A D 130-59) also mentions Asika, Asaka,

1 *Mahābhārata*, Bh P, 9 47

2 *ibid*

3 *Ibid*, Adī, 218 1-2

4 R E, V, Shahbazgarhi

5 *Majjhima-Nikāya*, III, 268, *Samyutta-Nikāya*, IV, 61

6 *Dīpavamsa* VIII, 7, *Mahāvamsa*, XII, 5, *Samanta-pāsādikā*, I, 67

7 EI, VIII, 44

Mūlaka, Suratha, Kukura, Aparānta, Anūpa, Vīdhava and Ākarāvanti⁸

In the *Raghuvamśa*, Kālidāsa makes Raghu cross the Sahya mountains and conquer the Aparānta country⁹ The *Jayamangalā* commentary on the *Kāmasūtra* also says that Aparānta was situated near the western sea¹⁰

Aparānta was also used to designate peoples or tribes In the *Mārkaṇḍeya-Purāna*,¹¹ the following are called the people of Aparānta Saurpārakas, Kālandas, Durgas, Anikatas, Pulindas, Suminas, Rupapas, Śvapadas, Kurumins, Kathaksharas (modern Kathkarī), Naisikyās and others who live on the north bank of the Narmadā,¹² the Bhirkachchhas, the Māheyas, the Sārasvatas, Kāśmīras (should be Kachchhikas),¹³ Saurāshtras, Āvantiyas and the Arbudas This territory roughly corresponds with the Paśchāddeśa of Rājasekhara which he placed to the west of Devasabhā, and included within it the *janapadas* of Surāshtra, Dāseraka, Travana, Bhṛigukachchha, Kachchhiya, Ānarta, Arbuda¹⁴ Kautilya mentions Devasabhā as a mountain¹⁵ If it is identified with the Aravallī, as has been suggested by S N Majumdar,¹⁶ Paśchāddeśa would include the territory from Abu up to Nasik including Saurāshtra, and Kaccha Thus the Paśchāddeśa of Rājasekhara fairly agrees with the Aparānta of the *Purānas* Rājasekhara did not use the term Aparānta, probably because by his time it indicated a much smaller area or had gone out of use altogether But Paśchāddeśa practically covers the modern Gujarātī speaking area

The country south of Mahī or at times south of Narmadā up to the Purna or as far as Daman was called Lāta In the second century A D, Ptolemy referred to it as Larike,

8 *ibid.*, 60

9 *Raghuvamśa*, IV, vv 52-53

10 *Kāmasūtra*, 126

11 *Mārkaṇḍeya-Purāna*, Tr by Pargiter, LVII, vv 50-52

12 *Vāyu-Purāna* XLV, 130 and *Matsya Purāna* CXIII, 50 has "within the Narmadā"

13 See *Matsya-Purāna* CXIII, 51 and *Vāyu* XLV, 131 Moreover, Kāśmīras are mentioned in the *Mārkaṇḍeya* in the appropriate place Hence Kāśmīras must be a mistake for Kachchhikas

14 Rājasekhara *Kāvya-māmāṃsā*, 93

15 *Arthasāstra*, 78

16 Ptolemy, McCrindle, ed by S N Majumdar, 355

but Ptolemy's Larīke was a political division rather than a geographical one, and as such included in addition to the sea board an extensive inland territory Barygaza or Bhrīgukachchha (Broach) was its chief port Bhrīgukachchha means the 'high coast land'

Though Ptolemy mentions Larīke, which is obviously derived from Lāta, neither ancient Indian literature nor inscriptions mention Lāta It is first mentioned in the Mandasor inscription of Kumāragupta and Bandhuvarman (A D 436)¹⁷ Thereafter the name gradually becomes more common According to al-Berunī, Lāradesha had two capitals, Bihroj and Rihanjur, 42 *farsakh* from Anhilvādā¹⁸ Bihroj is undoubtedly Broach, but it is not possible to identify Rihanjur, unless it was Rander, which once was a flourishing riverine port

When the Arab travellers visited the coast, Lāta included Thana, for Ibn Sa'id states "Tana is the last of the cities of Lār, well-known in the mouths of the merchants" Some other Arab travellers have also stated "Tana is in Jazrat on the eastern side"¹⁹ Later on we find Dimishqī writing in A D 1325 that the "coasts of the country of Lār are a continuation of the coasts of Jazrat"

Lāta had its own language or dialect Masudī (A D 943) states that Lārīyya language was spoken in coastal cities such as Saymur, Subara and Tana and in other regions associated with the Larwī sea, which washes these countries²⁰ This statement is corroborated by that of Bhoja, the Paramāra emperor, who, writing nearly two hundred years later, mentions that the people of Lāta had their own language which was a kind of Prakrit But soon after the reign of Bhoja, Chaulukya Karna annexed Lāta and thereafter Lāta became an integral part of the Chaulukyan empire, which soon came to be known as Gurjarabhūmī

Bhrīgukachchha in Lāta and Śūrpāraka in Konkana were both associated with Paraśurāma, the descendant of the sage Bhrīgu, and if there is any truth that Konkana was

17 *Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum*, III, 81

18 Al-Berunī's *India*, Tr by Sachau, I, 205

19 Quoted by S M Husayn Nainar *Arab Geographer's Knowledge of Southern India*, 81, f n, 181

20 *ibid*, 95

brought up by Parśurāma from the sea so that he might retire to Sūrpāraka, the whole area might have been at one time colonised by the residents of Bhrīgukachchha

North Konkan remained unconquered till Siddharāja Jayasīma, the emperor of Gujarāt (1094-1143) reduced Thana and built a fort there His successor, Kumārapāla, (1143-74) annexed North Konkan and made it a province of his kingdom His successors, however, retained their hold only over certain places along its coast In 1310 Thana is stated by Rashīd-ud-Dīn to have been included in the kingdom of Gujarāt, which was then governed by the viceroy of the Sultanate of Delhi With intermittent short periods, north Konkan so continued to be included in the kingdom of Gujarāt till A D 1543, when by the treaty of Bassein the Sultan of Gujarāt ceded it to the Portuguese

By about 1734 the Marathas occupied Thana In 1774 however, it was taken by the East India Company and annexed to Bombay, at a time when the latter's contact with Gujarāt was closer than with Deccan A few places in North Konkan which had been left in the hands of the Marathas were surrendered to the East India Company by the Treaty of Poona in 1817 In 1844 the Thana district was placed with Gujarat districts in the Northern division of the Presidency of Bombay and continued to be so till the present time Till a few years ago, for educational purposes the district was under the Educational Inspector of Gujarāt, though now it is attached to the Bombay Inspectorate

Saurāshtra is a very ancient name, though the much more ancient name is Kuśavarta Perhaps Dr Bhandarkar's view that the word is analogous to Mahārāshtra is not incorrect The Rathikas lived in Saurāshtra during the days of Aśoka, possibly the original Prakrit of the word was Radḍa or Rattha which perhaps survives in the name of Redḍis, Rāthors, Sorath and Marāthā It is more than likely that the words *Ānartta*, *Saurāshtra* and *Mahārāshtra* are the Sanskritized names of three regions of Ānarattha, Su-rattha, and Maha-rattha

Saurāshtra is also referred to in the Epics, the Purānas and classical Sanskrit literature, as also by foreigners like

Strabo, Pliny, Ptolemy, Periplus and Hiuen Tsang The Marathas gave Saurāshtra the name of the tribe which offered them the greatest resistance On the integration of Kathiawar to Free India (1947) the old name of Saurāshtra was restored

In the Chaulukyan period Saurāshtra was included in Gurjarabhūmi and so was it under the Sultanate of Gujarāt and under the Moghul Empire after Akbar conquered it It was only during the British period that Saurāshtra was detached from the mainland and the jurisdiction of several rulers big and small came to be recognised In 1947, however, on India being free Saurāshtra was integrated and now forms a separate state

Kaccha has always been known by that name and, though politically separate, its fortunes have invariably been linked with those of Gujarāt

The island of Bombay was originally a group of several islands which were unwholesome little pendants to North Konkan separated from it by a stormy creek Salsette itself was also split into several islands The Bombay islands were generally included in the North Konkan, but Bhimadeva or Bimba appears to be their first independent ruler in the 14th century Fleeing from the devastation inflicted on Gujarāta by the armies of Alā-ud-Dīn Khaljī (A.D. 1299) he escaped with a few families to these unwholesome islands and founded a small kingdom Scholars have disagreed as to whether Bhimadeva came from Gujarāt or Mahārāshtra But *Bimbākhyaṇa* itself makes it clear that he came from Anahilavāda, the capital of Gujarāt and his retinue was drawn mostly from Gujarāt

The islands also became part of the Sultanate of Gujarāt and by the treaty of 1534 came into the hands of the Portuguese In 1661 the king of Portugal gave them to Charles II of England in dowry In 1665 their possession was delivered to Humfray Cook by the Portuguese Viceroy In 1668, however, Charles II transferred it to the East India Company Shivājī raided Surat passing through the Nasik-Bulsar route twice between 1667 and 1672 Aungier, the then Governor of the Surat Factory, decided, in view of the insecurity of Surat as the headquarters of the East

India Company, to transfer them to a place secure from the rising Maratha Power except by sea where the British were powerful. It was intended to be a 'port for the exportation and importation of goods and persons to Persia, Mokha and other parts', and was for a considerable time a port subsidiary to Surat in Gujarat. Since then the East India Company and later the British Government built up the city of Bombay.

IV

The lowest strata of the population in North Konkan consist of Dublās, Wārlīs and Katkarīs. These aborigines were evidently pushed into the pocket including the islands of Bombay by pressure of immigrants from the North. The next immigrants into the islands of Bombay were the Kolis, who on all authorities continued to be their original inhabitants till Aungier founded the city of Bombay. Kathiawad and Central Gujarāt was the home of the Kolis in pre-historic times. With the advance of the Aryan tribes they were also pushed southwards up to Bombay, and they crossed over by the sea to Kolaba and Ratnagiri in small numbers.

The Bhrīgukachchhas, associated with Bhrīgu, the ancestor of Paraśurāma, and the allied Konkanas evidently brought an early Aryan Prakrit with them to the coastal tract from which Konkani has sprung. In 1922 Dr Jules Bloch in his celebrated treatise *La Formation de la Langue Marathe* wrote 'By its geographical features as by its population, the Prabhu, the Koli and the Thakur are met with in Gujarat as well. The Konkani is related to the region of Surat and to Gujarat. It is the same with regard to language. The common traits are more striking and numerous in the South.'

From this it would be legitimate to infer that the first Aryan settlers of the Konkan came by the sea from Gujarat and spoke its language. Up to the 10th century A.D. the language of South Gujarat and Thana was the same Lātī, as already stated, or Lādī, as the Arab travellers call it.

Among the immigrants by sea during the early centuries of the Christian era were the Brahmans and other settlers

on the Vaitaranā and in Śūrpāraka from Gujarat and Sind, Arabs in the 7th, 8th and 9th centuries, Parsi refugees from Persia in the 8th and 9th centuries, Arab and Persian traders and refugees, Gujaratis who followed the Chālukyan conquerors in the 10th and 11th centuries, and immigrants from Kathiawad and Gujarāt who escaped from Arab and Turkish persecution

The Muslim rule between A D 1300 and 1534 left the first legacy of an Indian Muslim settlement at Mahim in Bombay. The Portuguese rule brought the Konkani-speaking Christians who mainly consist of persons of Portuguese-Koli descent or Kolis by conversion. In 1671 Aungier invited the traders from Surat, as also bricklayers and labourers in large numbers to build Bombay. The scavengers in Bombay are mostly Gujarati-speaking and also appear to have come from Kathiawad and Surat about that time. In the 18th century the Brahmins from Cambay and Kapol Banias from Gujarat settled in North Konkan and Bombay. The great famine of 1803 brought many fugitives from Gujarat—Jains, Khojas, Memons, and Bohras, the last three being Muslims. About this time also came the Bhatias and Lohanas from Saurashtra and Cutch. The Ghats were yet uncrossed by a highway. The East India Company was at war with the Marathas till 1818 and there was no large-scale immigration from Mahārāshtra into North Konkan or Bombay. The plateau was first opened up in 1865 by the G I P Railway.

The position of language in 1885 is thus summarised: 'North of Umbargaon Gujarati is spoken by all classes. The people understand Marathi and use a good many Marathi words, but the bulk of the vocabulary and the grammar is Gujarati. From Umbargaon south as far as the Vaitarna between the coast and the railway the language of almost all classes except Maratha Brahmans and other late immigrants, is also Gujarati rather than Marathi and along the Dahanu coast where Gujarati is taught in the Government schools, the Gujarati element is so strong as to make the ordinary speech unintelligible to any one who knows Marathi only.'

The Gujarati-speaking people at present are thus distributed —

India	16,311,090
Bombay	11,413,554
Saurashtra	4,018,438
Kachha	560,493

The Gujaratis, 523,127 strong are the second largest minority in Greater Bombay with its population of 2,839,270 persons, the largest minority is Marathi-speaking 1,236,874 and the next third largest is Hindi-Urdu speaking, comprising 493,298 persons

During the British period, Gujaratis by their intelligence and enterprise, wealth and culture have added a distinctive pattern to this multi-lingual tract

V

Between modern and ancient Gujarāt 'there lies a gulf of mystery which the prose of the historian will never adequately bridge' We can, however, discern through the mist of incomplete evidence collected by diligent scholars, four outstanding personalities of Gujarāt history Lakulīśa, Jayasīmha-Siddharāja, Hemachandra, and Kumārapāla They shaped to a great extent the destiny of Gujarāt, and have bequeathed to us a rich heritage of religious fervour, political wisdom and scholarship

The soil of Gujarāt was unfitted for a Śankara or Chaitanya it could not produce a great lover like Chandīdāsa But Somanātha was the centre of Śaivism, and Dvārakā the most important seat of Vaiṣṇavism in India There can be no doubt that the preponderance of Śaiva cult in Gujarāt was due to the influence of Lakulīśa, who established in the early part of the second century the most important of the Śaiva sects, the Pāśupatas Before the fourth century, he was deified Evidence of Lakulīśa worship has been found at many places in India, at Mathura, at the Carnatic districts, at Gujarāt, at Rajputana and at Bhuvanesvar In his *Sarvadarśanasamgraha*, Mādhavāchārya recognised Lakulīśa-Pāśupata doctrine as one of the sixteen important philosophical systems of India Later the Pāśupata sect was associated with the great resurgence

which began from the 7th century, and spread over the whole country

It is not possible to discuss here the Lakulīṣa doctrine and its influence over Gujarāt and India. So we pass on to Siddharāja, the maker of modern Gujarat, inasmuch as it was due to him that for the first time the whole of modern Gujarati speaking area was brought under one government and modern Gujarāt became for the first time the centre of Gurjaradeśa. Kumārapāla ably continued the policy and maintained the position of Gujarāt as one of the strongest powers in India. With all his Jaina proclivities, he left a sufficiently strong army, which, four years after his death, led by a dowager queen and her minor son the king—queen Naikādevī and Mūlarāja II—signally defeated Mu'izz-ud-Din Muhammad of Ghor. Mūlarāja II is now practically forgotten, but all the chronicles which were written mostly by the peace-loving Jaina monks, have, without exception, sung the praise of this gallant prince for his bravery and valour on the field of battle, it was their tribute of grateful recognition that Mūlarāja had succeeded where the Chāhamāna emperor Prithvirāja had failed so disastrously.

But the most familiar name that emerges from this period is that of Hemachandra. Called '*kali-kāla-sarvaṇṇa*' even during his life, he has been given by modern European scholars the fitting epithet of 'the polymath'. He remains the greatest scholar that Gujarāt has ever produced.

Hemachandra has sometimes been accused of plagiarism²¹. It is quite natural that he was deeply indebted to his predecessors and has borrowed from them whenever necessary, sometimes without acknowledgment. "But this need not detract from the merits of the work since Indian writers do not make a fetish of the originality either of thought or of language"²². The writings of predecessors are looked upon as public property and they are used with perfect freedom and impunity. He gave to Gujarāt a

21 S. K. De, *A Study in the History of Sanskrit Poetics*, 203 f. n.

22 Hemachandra, *Pramāṇa Mīmāṃsā*, tr. by S. Mukherjee and N. Tata under the title, '*A Critique of the Organ of Knowledge*', Preface, III.

regional consciousness and established its primacy in the schools of learning for centuries

VI

Like other units of India distinguished by the dominance of a single language, Gujarāt had an independent social and cultural entity from the earliest times. Each of such provinces possesses a common stock of traditions and values and social outlook which was set working by the early Aryans in India and developed during the course of history peculiar to itself. All of them have employed and do employ now the structure, wealth and tradition of Sanskrit for their fuller literary expression. They all throb with common ideals and cherish a common will.

Thus, India has for centuries realized what to many nations is yet a dream—a fundamental national and cultural unity expressing itself through the diversity of independent and free regional life and literature. The underlying cultural unity has, however, waged through centuries an unceasing war against the centrifugal forces tending to disrupt it and, in spite of apparent divergencies, the history of different regional literatures stands out as a triumphant assertion of the unity of India.

These forces, in the ultimate analysis, can be traced to the geographical determinants of Gujarāt—its natural frontiers and its soil. Protected by the sea on the west, by the sands of Kaccha and Rajputana on the north, by the Aravalli, the plateau of Malva, the Vindhya, the Satpuda and the jungles on the east and south, which before the modern period rendered access to Salsette and Bombay impossible except by the sail, its rich alluvial soil has reared a race of men and women, soft and luxury-loving and yet possessing qualities which maritime activities generally foster and stimulate, a spirit of enterprise, practical wisdom, catholicity of taste and social flexibility. The plateau of Mālava (between 1000 to 2000 feet above the sea level) made it easily accessible to the resident of Madhyadeśa for colonisation, and cultural and political conquests. The little gateway formed by the Satpuda and the *ghats*, roughly between Daman and Nasik, made

Gujarāt a corridor between north India and the south letting in influences from the Deccan

VII

Gujarāt's proximity to the sea has been responsible for the ceaseless mercantile and maritime activities of its people, in fact the sea was their natural field of enterprise. Some of the ports of Gujarāt date back to the dawn of history, and have, at one time or another, enjoyed international importance. Through them, trade and commerce brought riches which overflowed the land. From them, streams of enterprising colonizers went out to distant lands. Kuśasthalī (Dwārikā) was a port through which perhaps the Panis of R̥gveda, doubtfully identified with the Phoenicians (Paniks-Punic), carried on an international trade. Māhishmatī of Sahasrārjuna and Śūrpāraka (Sopara), the Ophir of the Old Testament, were sea ports of considerable importance. The *Jātakas* record the maritime importance of Bhr̥gu-kaccha (Broach) from c. B.C. 600. All later history shows how till c. A.D. 1700 this city was the great entrepôt which maintained India's commercial intercourse with the world.

Ptolemy (A.D. 140) mentions Veraval, Mangrol and Porbandar as large ports, even now they carry on considerable sea-borne trade. Under the Chālukya and the Vāghelā kings of Gujarāt (961-1299) the ports of Ghoghā and Khambhāta (Cambay), a much older port, rose to great prominence, the former being the base of the royal fleet. The latter outgrew Broach in international importance and was the resort of merchants from every part of the globe. The early Portuguese traders called its merchants 'our keenest rivals, our merchantmen, our richest prizes'. Under the Moghul Empire, Surat became the premier port of the country. Before the British came, the flag of Gujarāt is stated to have flown in eighty-four ports, twenty-three of which were on the western coast, and the rest in foreign lands. During the British rule, Bombay, as far as its trade and commerce are concerned, is largely in Gujarati hands. Bhavnagar, Okha and Bedi in Saurashtra have come into prominence lately, in the nineteenth

century a Gujarati merchant had the largest mercantile fleet in Bombay. Kandla in Kaccha is a new port in the making.

The maritime activity of Gujarāt was not restricted merely to commerce. So early as c. B C 500, Prince Vijaya sailed from Simhapura (Sihor) near modern Bhavnagar and settled in Ceylon, and since then it had a close maritime intercourse with Bhrigukaccha and Śūrpāraka. According to *Vividha-tīrtha-kalpa*, a princess from Ceylon built a Jaina temple at Broach, and the well-known proverb of today— “लकानी लाडी न घोघानो वर” “the bride of Ceylon and the bridegroom of Ghogha”—apparently has had its origin in some long-forgotten incident. There is evidence of the Gujaratis, in c. A D 200, having brought presents from China by sea, of Indian ships, presumably Gujarati, having plied in Persian and African ports in c. A D 100, and of Hindu settlements having existed in Sokotra about the same time. Naushirvan (A D 531-574), the great Sassanian monarch of Persia, invaded Sindh with a fleet manned by sailors from Kaccha. Hiuen Tsiang (A D 630) records that the people of Saurāshtra occupied themselves with commerce.

In the seventh century, a ruler of Gujarāt, forewarned of the impending doom which was to overtake his kingdom, sailed away with his followers from his native soil in six large and a hundred small vessels to lay the foundation of a new civilisation in Java. Gujarāt maintained a colony there, and the wealth brought from Java has passed into a proverb: જે જાય જાવે તે કદી નો આવે, ન જો આવે તો પરીજાના પરીજાં જાવે દટલું ઘન લાવે.

“He who goes to Java never returns, but if he does, he brings so much wealth that his grand-children’s grand-children will not exhaust it.”

Friar Oderic (A D 1321) voyaged across the Indian Ocean in a vessel manned by Gujaratis, and Gujarati sailors, according to the authority of Vasco-de-Gama, knew how to guide their ships not only by the stars but by nautical instruments of their own. The Sultans of Gujarāt proudly bore the title of ‘Lords of the Sea’, and the Sanger Rajputs of Kaccha and Navanagar were well known for

their skill in ship-building during the Sultanate The East India Company, in c A D 1735, found in Dhunjibhai of Surat, a master architect of ships Early in the nineteenth century, Motīśā, a Jain merchant, owned the largest mercantile fleet in Bombay In the 20th century Gujarati merchants have been found trading with many parts of the globe and the only inter-continental steamship company in India which came into existence in the British period is the result of Gujarati enterprise The physical conditions of Gujarāt have practically remained the same though their exploitation by men increased both in scope and intensity in the nineteenth century

VIII

These persistent activities of the people of Gujarāt through the ages led to the rise among them of a well-to-do middle class which dominated social life, influenced politics, laid down traditions and shared with kings the patronage of literature

Acquisition of wealth became an important if not the sole end of life, and the display of it a great virtue The cosmopolitan spirit of this class, born of international intercourse, did not favour an ascetical or exclusive outlook on life, but fostered the instinct of adaptability and catholicity of spirit Social inequality was based as much on wealth as on birth and tended towards uniformity As a further result, life in the whole province became dynamic The people gained vast experience and a wide outlook on all matters. Foreigners came to settle among them, and were in time absorbed into the community Neither the feudal nor the intellectual aristocracy was powerful enough to check this endless process of levelling and adjustment Women waited on masters who were neither fierce warriors nor proud *pandits*, and in southern Gujarāt particularly, acquired great freedom, sharing with men the burden of life and exerting their influence on the environment in a manner unknown in other provinces of India

The soil of the mainland, watered by the rivers Tapi, Narmada, Mahi and Sabarmati, is rich and varied, and made agriculture a lucrative pursuit, and in years with a

good rainfall gave to almost the whole of the rural area more than enough to live on. As large tracts were under cotton cultivation even in pre-British days, the cotton industry flourished in towns and villages which poured out their products into distant lands, including Great Britain. The peasantry consequently has always been shrewd, intelligent and, to some extent, cultured, and, of late, has been the most actively political-minded group of its kind in the world. Till recently, prosperity through commerce, industry and agriculture has prevented any very great disparity between the economic, religious or cultural level of the urban and rural areas. The man of commerce aspires to be a landlord, the agriculturist comes to the city or crosses the seas in search of trade profits and on his return invests his savings in land. These conditions, however, do not exist in Kathiavad or Kaccha, where the towns were till recently camps of ruling chiefs and the villages were the homes of a hard-working and oppressed peasantry.

IX

The above features moulded the national characteristics and tastes. Popular imagination centred around the hero of commerce returning from foreign lands in vessels laden with riches, around the moral and the peaceful, around the charitable, the philanthropic and the worldly wise. These general traits took different colours in different areas. Even the author of *Kuvalayamālā* (c. A.C. 779) saw this difference and expressed it thus:

There I saw the Gurjjara people. They have strong bodies, are nourished on *ghee* and butter, are devout, clever in negotiations, and speak '*nau re bhallaum*'. Then I saw the people of Lāta. They part their hair, they besmear their bodies with scent, their bodies are beautiful to look at. They speak '*amhe kām tumham*'.

This distinction between North and South Gujarāt remains true after twelve hundred years. The people of the north, generally, are serious-minded, steady, religious and of heavy build, those of the south are pleasure-loving,

possess a greater sense of humour and enjoy life And this distinction again has led to the rise of two distinct currents of literature the one, conservative, intellectual sombre, puritanic, the other, progressive, light, rich in humour, and vivacious

The people of Saurashtra display their outstanding characteristics except where centuries of diplomacy or tyranny have destroyed their spirit They are strong and bold, with unforgotten traditions of a warlike past, hospitable, generous and impulsive These men have given to the folklore of Kathiavad its romantic charm and its burning passion Those who follow mercantile pursuits, though less catholic, refined and sentimental than their brothers of the mainland, are hard-headed and calculating The people of Kaccha share the same traits in a large measure and, in addition, possess a rare spirit of enterprise and a wonderful instinct for business organisation

“ ઘયલોણિય પુટ્ટંગે ઘમ્મવરે સધિવિગ્ગહે નિડળે ।
 નડરિ મહ્લડ મળિરે અહ પેચ્છઈ ગુજ્જરે અવરે ॥
 ણ્હાઓલિત્તવિલિત્તે કયસીમતે સોહિયગત્તે ।
 અમ્હ કાડ તુમ્હ મળિરે અહ પેચ્છઈ લાડે ॥”

The problems which faced Gujarāt in the past were How to resist the agencies working for disruption, and how to absorb the alien influences which from time to time threatened its culture For, this rich and fertile province was always a tempting prize for conquerors since the earliest days

X

The active participation of women in all walks of life, an ordinary feature of modern life, has not been unknown in the past Mīnaladevī who ruled Gujarāt during Siddharāja's infancy, Anupamādevī who assisted her husband Tejahpāla, and Mirānbāī, the poetess, were not creatures of fiction or freaks Widows and mothers have frequently carried on the family business And in modern times a period of less than a generation saw them taking their legitimate place in many walks of life

Ethical, religious and spiritual ideals have always been modified in Gujarāt to suit its temperament High spiritua-

lity and learning have been always neglected in favour of a practical application of moral principles Gujarāt has been the home of magnificent temples and charitable and philanthropic institutions In old times, the Jain *sādhu*, the humble *pāurāṇik* and the village *bhakta* brought solace and help to the poor and the distressed *Ahimsā* has, at all times, leavened corporate life For ages there has been scarcely a town or a large village without its *sadāvrata* to feed the poor, its *pāṇjrapol* to house maimed cattle Kumārapāla and Hemachandra made of it a political doctrine

Gujarāt, however, prefers the joy of life to ascetic rigour The high-browed Brahman and the stern *sādhu* have come and gone Akho taught all the horrors of this fleeting world Svāmīnārāyan's puritanical teachings and in recent years even Mahatma Gandhi's gospel or renunciation have held its soul in subjugation only for a time But Gujarāt has a genius of its own Its sons and daughters will make money and spend it on the arts of life, they will live and laugh, and love and sing joyfully

ABBREVIATIONS

BG	<i>Bombay Gazetteer</i>
Bh P	<i>Bhāgavata Purāna</i>
BK	<i>Bhavisattakaha</i> of Dhanapāla Edited by C D Dalal and P D Gune
BV	<i>Bhāratīya Vidyā</i>
CC	<i>Catalogus Catalogorum</i> By T Aufrecht
BPSI	<i>Bhavnagar Prakrit and Sanskrit Inscriptions</i>
Dv	<i>Dvyāśraya</i> of Hemacandra
EAG	<i>Early Aryans in Gujarata</i> By K M Munshi
EI	<i>Epigraphia Indica</i>
Ep Ind	” ”
GIL	<i>Geschichte des Indischen Litteratur</i> By M Winternitz
GG	<i>The Glory that was Gūrjaradesa</i> By K M Munshi
GOS	<i>Gaekwad's Oriental Series</i>
Har	<i>Harivamśa</i>
HCSL	<i>History of Classical Sanskrit Literature</i> By M Krishnamachariar
HIED	<i>History of India as told by its Own Historians</i> By Elliot and Dawson
HIL	<i>History of Indian Literature</i> By M Winternitz
HK	<i>History of Kanauj</i> By R S Tripathi
HSL	<i>History of Sanskrit Literature</i> By Das- gupta and De
IA	<i>Indian Antiquary</i>
IC	<i>Indian Culture</i>
IG	<i>The Imperial Gūrjaras</i> By K M Munshi
JBBRAS	<i>Journal of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society</i>
JRAS	<i>Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society</i>

<i>KHDS</i>	<i>History of Dharmaśāstra</i> By P V Kane
<i>KK</i>	<i>Kīrtikaumudī</i> of Someśvara
<i>KM</i>	<i>Kāvyaṃālā Series</i>
<i>KPS</i>	<i>Kumārapālapratiḥodha</i> of Somaprabha Edited by Muni Jinavijaya
<i>LSI</i>	<i>Linguistic Survey of India</i>
<i>Mbh</i>	<i>Mahābhārata</i>
<i>ND</i>	<i>Nāṭyadarpana</i>
<i>NHIP</i>	<i>New History of Indian People</i> By R C Majumdar and A S Altekar
<i>NSC</i>	<i>Navasāhasāṅkacarita</i> of Padmagupta
<i>P</i>	<i>Purāṇa</i>
<i>PC</i>	<i>Prabandhacintāmaṇi</i> of Merutunga
<i>PV</i>	<i>Prakṛit Vyākaraṇa</i> of Hemachandra
<i>R E</i>	<i>Rock Edicts</i>
<i>RKM</i>	<i>Kāvyaṃmāmsā</i> of Rājaśekhara
<i>RT</i>	<i>Rājataranginī</i> of Kalhana
<i>SILH</i>	<i>Studies in Indian Literary History</i> By P K Gode

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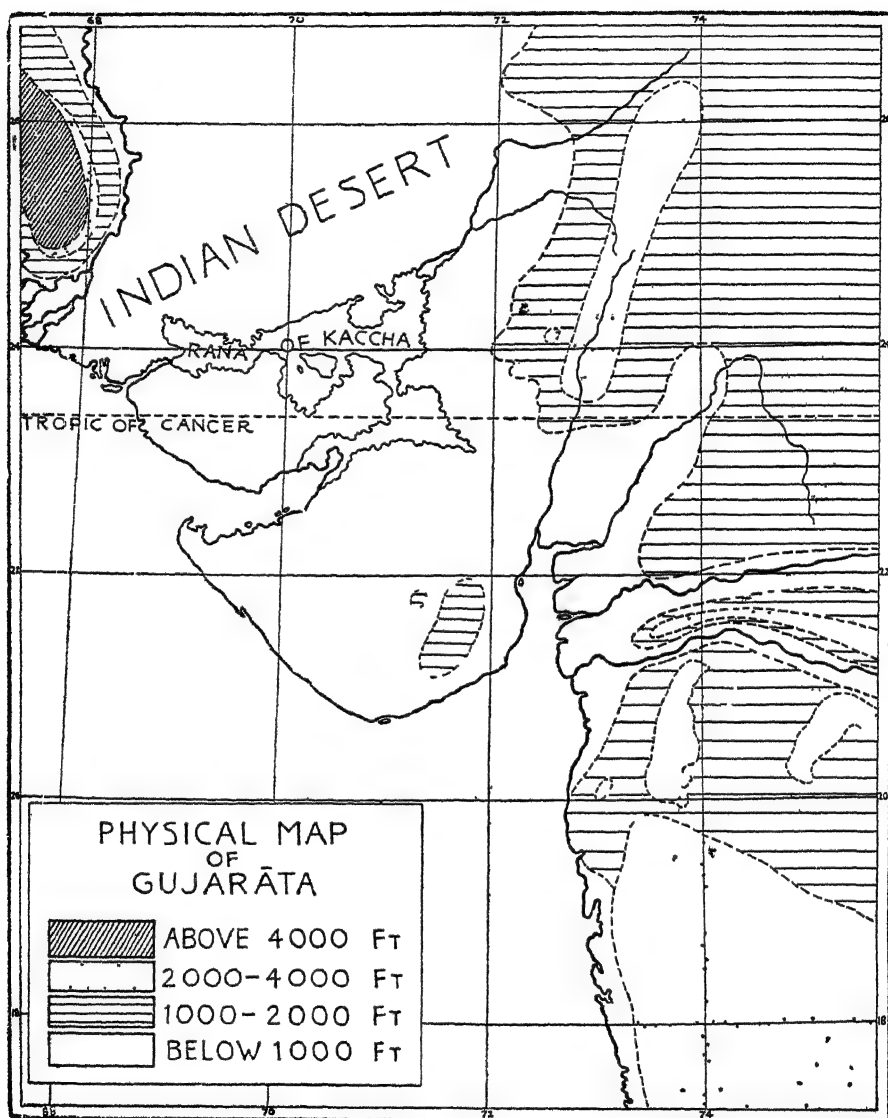
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CHAPTER I

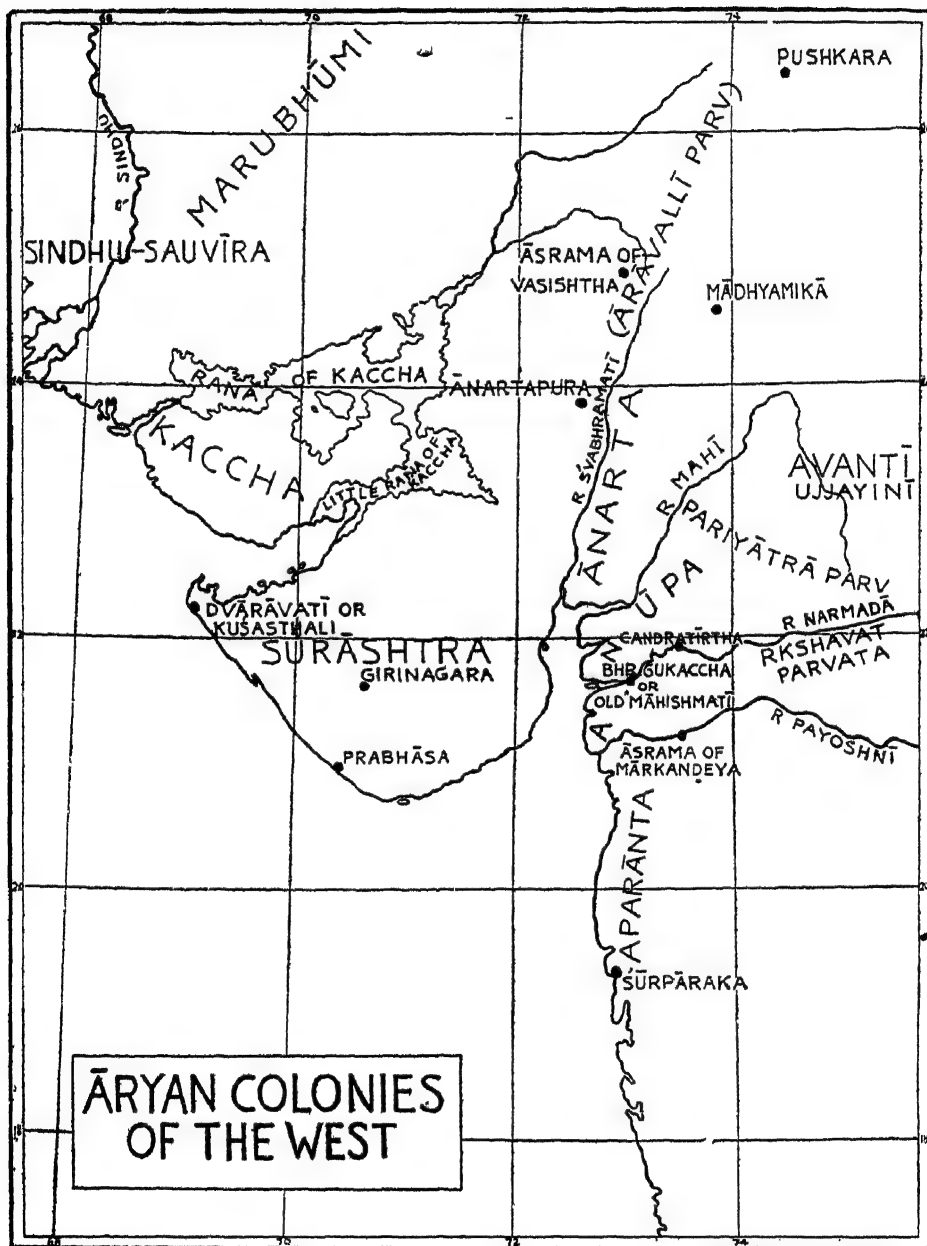
THE ARYAN COLONIES OF THE WEST, THEIR LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE (A D 500)

Protohistorical and prehistorical conditions The Nāgas Early Aryan occupation (? to A D 500) Traditional accounts Sahasrārjuna and Haihayas Bhrigus Yādavas Mauryas (390-197 B C) Greeks (189-100 B C) Western Kshatrapas (c 70 B C to A D 398)—Guptas (c 390 to A D 467)—The Āsramas and Aryan Culture—Aryan Centres—Ābhīras—Their origin and status Aryan influence under Guptas—Languages—the Outer and Midland Bands of Aryans and their dialects Prakṛits—*Dharmakathā*—*Tarangalolā* a social *dharmakathā*

GUJARĀT including Kāthiāwār or to use its classical name now restored, Saurāshtra, had a long proto-historic past In a remote period, before the Himālayas rose in the place of an ocean and when its present rivers were being formed, Early Man wandered on their banks Possibly the Dublās, Minās, Dhediās, Chaudhrās, Vārīs and Kātkarīs, who inhabit the triangle south of the Narmadā between the sea and the ghāts, are the descendants of these dark-skinned and stunted people The Kolis, whose ancient habitat was in Gujarāt and Saurāshtra, are possibly the descendants of another race of early men who lived here in the stone age

The so-called Indus Civilisation (3500-2750 B C) was not restricted to the valley of the Sindhu There is definite evidence that it also extended to Sindh, Saurāshtra and the region of the Narmadā and the Tāpī¹ It was at the ports of Broach and Cambay that the carnelian industry of India appears to have been concentrated The western coastal region of the Indian peninsula, Saurāshtra, the valleys of the North Western Frontier Province, Sindh, the Punjab, the Upper Doāb, if not the whole Gangetic and the habitable parts of Rājputāna were thus comprised within the limits of a civilization which can

1 Dikshit, *Prehistoric Civilization of the Indus Valley*, p 12



approximately be called proto-Indian. The people whose culture is discernible in the ruins of Mohenjo-Daro and Harappā may be Dravidians²

I

It is difficult to say when the Aryans arrived in India or penetrated into Gujarāt. But the first Aryan conqueror from the North who raided the country into the Narmadā found the Nāgas already in occupation. The Ratthikas who occupied Saurāshtra in the days of Aśoka and who may have given their name to Su-rath (Saurāshtra), Mahā-ratha (Mahārāshtra), Rāthoḍs (Rāshtrakūtas) and Reddis of Telengana were also early occupants of Gujarāt. The early Aryan and the earliest available literature referred to all these early inhabitants as Nāgas.

The seafaring branch of the Kolis is known as Khār-wās, 'the residents of the salt-areas'. These early sailors, moving in small country craft, founded several ports from Pātāla in Sindh to Māhim, now part of Bombay City, Bhrīgukachchha and Śūrpāraka being the famous entrepôts by the seventh century before Christ.

The Bhils had their original homeland in Gujarāt. Possibly they were Dravidians. Whether they had any relation with the Indus people or the Ābhīras of a later age is not quite clear.

The first wave of Aryan immigrants in Gujarāt perhaps consisted of the Śāryātas, a tribe claiming descent from Manu, and the Bhrigus, the martial priests, who traced their descent from the sage Bhrigu³. There is evidence to show that Aryan tribes called Saurāshtras, Ānartas, Bhrīgukachchhas, Aparāntas and Konkanas occupied the

² Banerji, *Prehistoric, Ancient & Hindu India*, p. 10, Hunter *Script of Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro*, p. 12, Heras, *Journal of the Benares Hindu University*, II pp. 7-12; etc.

³ Munshi, *GG* I pp. 49-52.

entire seacoast from Sindh to Bombay⁴ Possibly the historic tradition of Bhrigus and Śāryātas is based on the folk-lore of these tribes The myth runs that the eponymous Śaryāti and Chyavana, the Bhrigu, found a home in this distant land⁵ A son of the former, Ānarta, gave his name to North Gujarāt Perhaps Ānarta also was the name of a tribe, and Ānartapura (Ānandapura, modern Vadnagar) was one of the earliest centres of Aryan Culture Chyavana's āśrama was situated on the banks of the Narmadā, possibly near Rājpipla, if what Yudhishthira was told during his pilgrimage to these parts⁶ had any element of truth in it The Bhrigus had Bhrigutīrthas on the Narmadā The next wave of immigrants settled in Saurāshtra, where Haryaśva, a Yādava king, founded a kingdom Girinagara (Junāgadh), Kuśasthali and Prabhāsa were the earliest Aryan settlements in the peninsula⁷

Later Sahasrārjuna Kārtavīrya of the Haihaya tribe, a branch of the Yādavas, a great conqueror, turned his attention to this land Kārtavīrya did not like the pretensions of the Midland Aryans who were laying the foundations of small states and a great civilization in the north Once, the myth runs, he killed the sage Jamad-

4 *Mārkaṇḍeya P.*, 57 49 52, 58 22, *Matsya P.*, 114 50-51, *Vayu P.*, 45 128-131

महेन्द्रमलयाद्रौ च ददुरे च वसति ये ।

कर्कोटकवने ये च भृगुकच्छा सकोङ्कणाः ॥ मार्कण्डेय ५८-२१

वासिक्याश्चैव ये चान्ये ये चैवान्तरनर्मदा ।

भारुकच्छा समाहेया सहसारस्वतैस्तथा ॥ मत्स्य, ११४-५०

काच्छीकाश्चैव सौराष्ट्रा आनर्ता अबुदं सह ।

इत्येते अपरान्तास्तु शूणु ये विन्ध्यवासिनः ॥

5 *Matsya P.*, 12 21-22, *Harṣ*, 1 10 29, 31, *Vishnu P.*, IV 1 1

आनर्तो नाम शयीते सुकन्या चैव दारिका ॥ मत्स्य, १२-२१

आनर्तस्याभवत्पुत्रो रोचमानः प्रतापवान् ।

आनर्तो नाम देशोऽभून्नगरी च कुशस्थली ॥ २२

6 *Mbh* III 87 10,

आश्रम कक्षसेनस्य पुण्यस्तत्र युधिष्ठिर ।

च्यवनस्याश्रमश्चैव ख्यातः सर्वत्र पाण्डव ।

तत्रालपेनैव सिध्यन्ति मानवास्तपसा बिभो ॥

7 *Harṣ*, II 37, 38

agni, a Bhrigu of the Midland and an associate of the great Viśvāmitra, and drew upon himself the wrath of his son, the fierce Rāma. This dauntless young warrior, worshipped for generations under the name of Paraśurāma as a teacher of the martial art and as the sixth incarnation of Viṣṇu, vanquished his father's murderer, razed Māhishmatī to the ground and promoted Aryan settlements on the Narmadā. Kārtavīrya's empire, for such it was, included Anūpa, and Ānarta (South and North Gujarāt), Saurāshtra (Kāthiāwāī), Avantī (Mālwa) and Śūrasena (Mathurā), thus clearly indicating that these outlying provinces formed a homogeneous group of colonies.⁸ The myth that Paraśurāma, in no less than twenty-one campaigns, destroyed all kings is suggestive of the incessant war which the Bhrigus had to carry on against the Haihayas. In his old age the warrior made Śūrpāraka his home and brought in his train the culture of Āryāvarta. This event cannot possibly be put later than 1400 B.C.

Nothing definite is heard of Ānarta or Saurāshtra till we come to the period of the great Bhārata war between the Kurus and the Pāṇḍus. Some decades before that epoch-making conflict, the Yādavas of Śūrasena rose against their king Kamsa of Mathurā. Krishna, the young Yādava hero, killed him. Later, fleeing before the wrath of Jarāsandha, the king of Magadha and the father-in-law of Kamsa, the Yādavas came to these hospitable colonies, led by Śrī Krishna, and his brother Baladeva. In Ānarta and Saurāshtra, they ultimately settled. Ugrasena ruled his kingdom from Dvārakā with the aid of Śrī Krishna, who very soon came to be regarded as the supreme representative of Aryan culture and statecraft.

The Aranyaka-parva (Vanaparva) of the *Mahābhārata* contains a narrative of Yudhishtira's pilgrimage through Gujarāt.⁹ When this eldest son of Pāṇḍu visited the land, he found Aparānta, the sea-board to the north of Bombay, studded with Aryan colonies. Mārkaṇḍeya

⁸ cf. Munshi, *EAG* pp. 29-31, 68-69

⁹ *Mbh* III 118-121

had an *āśrama* or hermitage on the Payoshnī, identified by some with the river Tāpī,¹⁰ the Bhrigus had *āśramas* on the Narmadā. During the war all eyes turned to Dvārakā's great statesman for bringing about a decisive issue. The Yādava heroes with their unruly tribesmen took part in the great war, and returned home only to destroy each other.

A few miles from Prabhāsa in Kāthiāwār the spot is pointed out where Śrī Krishna fell, pierced by an arrow. Tradition has hallowed the spot, a venerable tree throws its kindly shade over it, a small river flows sluggishly by to join the sea.

The succeeding centuries are a blank till we come to the records of the Mauryan empire of Magadha. During this period, Gujarāt was occupied by the non-Aryan Nishādas, whose modern descendants are called Bhils. Ptolemy refers to various tribes as occupying these regions, but it is doubtful whether what he calls tribes were distinct ethnic groups. He calls, for instance, Horatae, a tribe,¹¹ in fact they are the same as the people called Saurāshtras, and we know from Pāṇini that Saurāshtras were the residents of Saurāshtra. The Ābhīras are also associated, at least from before the first century B C, with Saurāshtra and were absorbed among the Yādavas, indicating that the Aryan Yādavas, as a race, had persisted throughout this period. Possibly Chandragupta Maurya (323-298 B C) brought both Ānarta and Saurāshtra within the fold of an empire dominated by Aryan influences from Madhyadeśa. Buddhism and Jainism obtained a foot-hold in these parts a little later. Aśoka (272-232 B C) ruled over Saurāshtra.

10 *Mbh* III 86 45, also Pargiter, *Mārkaṇḍeya P*, pp 299, 335, 365

राजर्वेस्तस्य च सरिन्मृगस्य भरतर्वभ ।

रम्यतीर्था बहुजला पयोष्णी द्विजसेविता ॥ ४

अपि चात्र महायोगी मार्कण्डेयो महातपाः ।

अनुवंश्यां जगौ गाथा नृगस्य धरणीपते ॥ ५

11 cf BG I Part I p 434 f, Cunningham, *Ancient Geography of India* (Ed Majumdar Sastri), pp 352 ff, Law, *Tribes in Ancient India*, p. 348

through a Greek governor, Yavana Thera by name. His edicts (240 B C), inscribed on a rock, can still be seen as one climbs to the top of Mount Gīrnār from Junāgadh.

After the break-up of the Mauryan empire (197 B C.) these distant provinces were ruled by Apollodotus, the Bactrian Greek, and later by Menander (148-126 B C), the Bactrian king of Kābul, known in Buddhist literature as Milinda. In c 80 B C or a little earlier, the Bactrian Greeks were conquered by the Śakas or Scythians. According to tradition they were driven out from Ujjayinī in c 56 B C. The first century after Christ saw another Scythian chief with the title of Kshatrapa (Satrap) occupying Saurāshtra. Kshatrapa Nahapāna (A D 78-120) ruled over Gujarāt, but it soon passed into the hands of the Āndhra king Gautamīputra Sātakarni. This champion of Brahmanism as well as Buddhism, at one time held sway over the whole country watered by the Godāvarī, and also over Berār, Mālwa, Gujarāt and North Konkan. During this time South Gujarāt came under the active influence of the Deccan.

Soon after Gautamīputra's death, about A D 128 another Kshatrapa wrested Mālwa and Gujarāt from the hands of his son Rudradāman I (A D 143-158), grandson of the Kshatrapa Chashtana, ruled over Ānarta, Anūpa, Kachchha, Saurāshtra, Avantī, Maru, Sindhu-Sauvīra and Aparānta, that is, over South Rājputāna, Mālwa, Gujarāt, including both Kāthiāwār and Kachchha and North Konkan.¹² Once again, Kārtavīrya's empire was revived and consolidated by the conquering arms of a foreigner's Arya-nised grandson. Rudradāman I was learned and accomplished and recorded his achievement in Sanskrit on the Gīrnār rock which already bore Aśoka's inscription.

The Śaka Kshatrapas ruled long over Gujarāt, but bowed before the overpowering might of Samudra-gupta (A D 380), the greatest conqueror known to Indian History, and were destroyed by Chandra-gupta II (c 387-397).

12 cf *NHIP* VI p 47, Junāgadh Rock Inscription of Rudradāman (Sir-car's *Select Inscriptions* No. 67).

Chandra-gupta, who proudly bore the title of Vikramāditya, ruled Gujarāt from Ujjayinī, the seat of an intensely fostered Sanskritic culture, and thus Gujarāt, for a century, remained an integral part of an empire which stood for Aryan culture at its best. On the very rock near Mount Gīrnār which bore the inscriptions of Aśoka and Rudradāman, Skanda-gupta's viceroy of Gujarāt, Parnadatta, recorded his master's victory over the Hūnas (A D 456). Skanda-gupta died about A D 467 and the Guptas lost the province of Gujarāt soon after. South Gujarāt was ruled by the Traikūtakas (A D 450-495).

II

Though these colonies, Anūpa, Ānarta, Saurāshtra, Kachchha and Aparānta, were administered by Madhyadeśa only intermittently, they were always dominated by Aryan Culture. The early Aryan settlers brought with them their own civilization, and always looked for fresh inspiration to the home of their ancestors. They married the daughters of the inhabitants freely and naturally imposed their superior civilization on those with whom they so mingled. Later waves of Indo-Aryans came from different parts of North India and settled in these colonies. Each of them retained its exclusive corporate existence, though evolving, with others, a common life on the Aryan model. In convenient centres, adventurous Rishis established their hermitages—*āśramas*—which preserved the high traditions of Aryan life in all its purity. There the Rishis lived,—their character, learning and ideals, their only source of power and influence,—uplifting and unifying, and radiating Aryan ideals in thought, word and deed. These *āśramas* were the strongholds of civilization. They flourished in an unbroken chain all over India, and maintained living contact with each other and with the seats of learning in the Gangetic valley and in the forests of Brahmāvarta and Naimisha, where new ways of life and thought were being brought into existence by great sages, under the name of *dharma*.

The *dharma*, which, even in the Vedic and post-Vedic times was growing towards its ultimate scope and content, was the overarching law of life. It comprised rituals and myths, modes of life and canons of conduct, traditions, a wealth of language and literature, a theory of life and social organisation, and living ideals. Historic continuity was preserved through a belief in the *Vedas* as the ultimate source of all inspiration. The mythology embraced sacred legends of rivers, mountains, cities, royal houses, semi-divine heroes and sages, which made the past a vital heritage to every succeeding age.

The social organisation was based on a family life dominated by strong patriarchal traditions. It afforded shelter to every needy and helpless member, and as a corollary, imposed strict regard for feminine virtue so essential to preserve the purity of race and culture. It was based on the hierarchy of social groups divided according to the standard of culture attained by each. At its head stood the *Brāhmanas* devoted to learning, contemplation and self-discipline. The hierarchical organisation permitted a new-comer to benefit by, but never to destroy, social achievements, and offered scope to the uncultured to rise in the scale of life, but never so fast as to jeopardise its stability.

Sanskrit, a language perfect in structure and elastic in expression, with a rich, varied, magnificent literary achievement, was the living embodiment of the *dharma*. Finally, all conduct was regulated by one unchanging supreme code of ethical values. Though running through a diversity of religious beliefs, it insisted on the observance of the great vows—*mahā-vratas*—of non-violence, truth, non-stealing, continence and non-possession.¹³ The fundamental of this *dharma* from the beginning was the supreme faith in human endeavour, self-discipline (*sam-yama*) and asceticism (*tapas*). These alone could lead a man to transcend his limitations and become divine in

13. *Yogasūtra*, II 30.

अहिंसासत्याजस्तेयब्रह्मचर्याज्जिग्रहा यमाः ।

this life Emphasis was laid on individual experience and becoming, rather than on belief and scriptural word And its base was a living conception of Āryāvarta, the sacred land of the Aryans, leavened by an abiding veneration for those who lived and died so that it may endure great and eternal

The Rishis called this culture '*dharma*' which generally means a sum-total of all sentiments, beliefs, values and activities which make life, literature and country worth living for And the effort which it made for self-expression through adverse circumstances, is the central theme of Indian history during the last three thousand years

From the beginning of their occupation of India, the Aryans' hold over the country was more cultural than political or economic It was a conquest made by men who, generation after generation, created or studied literature, sacred or profane, at Banaras, Taxila, Nālandā, Mathurā, Ujjayinī and a hundred other similar places They lived under trying, if not well-nigh impossible, conditions and gave to the people, in return for a meagre maintenance, religion, ethics, literature, mythology, and above all, a self-conscious cultural unity The problem before them was the absorption of the foreign, the depressed and the backward elements of society around them into the fold of their civilization Since the day when the mythic Śaryāti put his foot on this land, successive generations of such men largely Aryanised this province

Girīnagara, Ānartapura, Prabhāsa and Chandratīrtha (Chandod) attracted Brāhmanas from all parts of the country Ujjayinī, a great distributing centre of culture, always dominated Gujarāt There was an *āśrama* of Vasīshṭha near Ābu, of Kapila near Siddhapura, of Bhrigu on the Narmadā, of Mārkaṇḍeya on the Payoshnī

But Gujarāt was far away from Madhyadeśa, and the culture she received suffered both in purity and vigour in the process of transplantation. The *Mahābhārata* states that the Kshatriyas of this land had lost their status as they had no Brāhmana to perform their ritual so very

essential in the life of an Aryan ¹⁴ The *Vishnu Purāna* enjoined that those who visited Saurāshtra should undergo purification ¹⁵ Aśoka had evidently regarded a Greek as good enough to be the governor of this frontier colony Non-Brahmanical Aryan doctrines like those of Buddhism and Jainism had found a refuge here During the rule of the Satrap Nahapāna, the Brāhmanas had even taken Greek women in marriage The *Varnāśrama Dharma*, recognising only the four main castes, was accepted in theory In practice, however, it gave rise to a system which treated every small autonomous group of settlers as a separate caste A spirit of tolerance pervaded the social atmosphere The culture was evidently well-distributed though not of a very high order In Gujarāt the absence of a large class of orthodox Brāhmanas with traditions of learning, as in Bengal or Mahārāshtra, retarded the progress of learning On the other hand, the bitterness born of caste inequality rarely found a home here

Among the principal tribes which occupied Gujarāt, the Ābhīras deserve some attention Apabhramśa, which had been recognised as one of the literary languages of Gujarāt before the rise of the Valabhīs (A D 509), was based on their dialect Were the Ābhīras foreigners? Was their language alien? Patañjali (150B C) employs the term Apabhramśa to signify the corruption of the nor-

14 Mbh XIV 29 13-16

ततस्तु क्षत्रियाः केचिज्जामदग्न्यभयादिता ।
 विविशुगिरिदुर्गाणि मृगाः सिंहदिता इव ॥ १३
 तेषां स्वचिह्नं कर्म तद्भयान्नानुतिष्ठितम् ।
 प्रजा वृषलतां प्राप्ता ब्राह्मणानामदर्शनात् ॥ १४
 एव ते द्रविडाऽऽभीराः पुण्ड्राश्च शबरेः सह ।
 वृषलत्वं परिगता व्युत्थानात् क्षत्रधर्माणि ॥ १५

15 *Vishnu P*, IV 24 Wilson's Translation, ed by Fitzedward Hall, Vol IV p 222)

सौराष्ट्रावन्तिशूद्रानर्बुदविषयोश्च द्रात्याद्विजाभीरशूद्राद्या भोक्ष्यन्ति ।

mal Sanskrit,¹⁶ Bharata (A D 200) refers to 'deśabhāshā' and the 'Ābhīrokti', the idiom of the Ābhīras, the herdsmen¹⁷

There is no doubt that the Ābhīras, a hated people, believed to have once lived on the Sindhu, were called Mlechchhas. They fought in the battle of Kurukshetra. They seemed to have driven the Yādavas out of Saurāshtra after Śrī Krishna's death¹⁸. *Manu Smṛiti* treats them as descended from the Brāhmanas of Ambashtha women¹⁹. Whatever might have been their early status, prior to A D 100 the Ābhīras lived in Gujarāt without any brand of social inferiority. Periplus (c. A D 70) found them already settled in Western India (Abiria). Ābhīra Rudrabhūti (A D 181) was a general of Western Kshatrapas²⁰. Īśvarasena, son of Śivadatta, ruled a principality near Nāsik (A D 300). Ābhīras lived in Rājasthān and Mālhwā on the western frontier of the Gupta empire in Samudra-gupta's time (A D 360). An Ābhīra dynasty succeeded the Āndhrabhṛityas, according to the *Vishnu Purāna*²¹. All these facts indicate that the Ābhīras occupied an important position in society in Rājputāna, Gujarāt and even further south, before A D 500. Neither their names nor their language appear to be

16 *Vyākaraṇa Mahābhāṣya of Patañjali* (Edited by F. Kielhorn Vol I, Bombay 1882), P. 2

एकैकस्य हि शब्दस्य बहवोऽपभ्रशा । तद्यथा ।

गौरित्यस्य शब्दस्य गावी गोगी गोतः गोयोतलिकेत्येवमादयोऽपभ्रशा ॥

17 *Nāṭyasāstra of Bharata*, XVII 24-55

एवमेतत्तु विज्ञेयं प्राकृतं संस्कृतं तथा ।

अत ऊर्ध्वं प्रवक्ष्यामि देशभाषाप्रकल्पनम् ॥ २४

गवाक्ष्वाजाविकौष्ट्रादि घोषस्थाननिवासिनाम् ।

आभीरोक्तिः शाबरी वा द्राविडी द्रविडादिषु ॥ ५५

18 cf. *Mbh.* XVI 7 46-63, 8 16-17

19 *Manusmṛiti* X 15

ब्राह्मणादुग्रकन्यायामावृतो नाम जायते ।

आभीरोम्बष्ठकन्यायामायोगव्या तु धिग्वणः ॥

20 cf. *EI* XVI p. 235

21 cf. Pargiter, *Dynasties of the Kākā Age*, pp. 44-47, 72, *Vishnu P.*, IV 24. 13-16.

foreign, and even if they were originally foreigners, they were for all purposes children of the soil before the Christian era began. Many scholars believe that the Ābhīras entered India about 150 B C and migrated to Gujarāt a couple of centuries later. According to Dr Keith, they probably belonged to the Dardic branch of the Indian race.²²

III

For a hundred years, Gujarāt formed part of the Gupta empire. The Gupta period was the golden age of Indian history. Samudra-gupta, Chandra-gupta II, the Vikramāditya of romance, Kumāra-gupta and Skanda-gupta were great, not only as conquerors and statesmen, but as patrons of all cultural activities. Their learning and character stimulated the growth and development of culture. Their strong and just administration, more than their conquests, brought about the political consolidation of India north of the Narmadā.

In the Gupta period, the old Aryan myths, known all over the country, were edited and compiled in works which have since become classic. The *Mahābhārata* emerged almost in its present form. Purāṇas like the *Vāyu*, the *Harivamśa*, the *Matsya*, and the *Mārkaṇḍeya* were composed. The study of law and ritual, science and philosophy, ethics and religion received great impetus. The old literature on these subjects was revised, in some cases standardised. *Manu*, *Yājñavalkya*, and other law texts were either revised or composed. Astronomy, mathematics, and medicine were assiduously cultivated.²³ Architecture, sculpture and painting reached a high level of artistic expression. Sanskrit, already the medium of intercourse for the cultured in the whole country, became the great unifying agency, the vehicle, the source and the inspiration of culture in its manifold aspects. Literary expression, too, reached its climax in the *kāvya*s (epics),

²² HSL p 33

²³ cf. NHIP VI Ch XX pp 401-422

and the *nātākas* (dramas) Kālidāsa, one of the world's supreme literary artists, lived, as is now accepted by many eminent authorities, at the court of Chandra-gupta II Vikramāditya. His *Raghuvamśa*, *Meghadūta*, and *Śākuntala* were accepted in India as prototypes of literary art in its most perfect form. The worship of Viṣṇu became the state religion, and the Brahmanical view of Aryan culture the dominant note in the nation's life. During this period the seats of learning were lavishly endowed. So far, faint memories of racial unity and the common heritage of culture were the two ties which bound North India together, to them was now added political unity. Though there is very little contemporary evidence, subsequent history fully bears out that these influences deeply affected life and literature in Gujarāt, and it is more than probable that towards the composition of the *Harivamśa*, the *Matsya*, and the *Mārkaṇḍeya Purānas*, the people of Gujarāt made no small contribution.

IV

The Aryan speech all the world over and particularly in India, has shown great vitality throughout the ages. In the course of its progress in this country, for instance, one series of phenomena attracts our attention on account of its periodic recurrence. By borrowing the charm and importance of Sanskrit, a dialect attains literary status. In consequence it is standardised and enriched, but the gulf between the spoken language or *deśabhāṣhā* and the literary form, *sāhitya-bhāṣhā*, widens. This loss of living contact with the spoken form eventually arrests growth in the literary speech-form, while the *deśabhāṣhā*, no doubt considerably influenced by the literary speech, continues along its course of evolution. When the literary form becomes archaic or unsuited for popular expression, the *deśabhāṣhā* in its turn receives literary polish with the aid of Sanskrit. Thus the Prakrits, the Apabhramśa and the present-day Indian languages in their

old and modern forms were originally *deśabhāshās*, which in succession to one another attained literary form

Even after the Sanskrit universities were destroyed by the inroads of the Turks and Khaljis in the thirteenth and the fourteenth centuries, the *deśabhāshās* were cultivated with the aid of Sanskrit. When the literary forms thus evolved became unsuited to meet the needs of the people in the nineteenth century because of the contact with the West, the *deśabhāshās* in all the provinces developed a new literary form as we see it today under the joint influence of English and Sanskrit.

In view of the likely progressive elimination of English from the life of the country, the influence of Sanskrit may dominate in the evolution of modern Indian languages. But the spread of compulsory primary education and the need of mass mobilisation, essential to national existence in a democratic country, may make the exchange between the spoken and the literary forms of every language in India brisk so as to prevent a break between the spoken and the literary language.

Sir George Grierson advanced the theory that the Aryans entered India in two waves, one, which he calls that of the Aryans of the Outer Band, and the other, that of the Midland (Madhyadeśa) Aryans. In course of time, the speech of the Midland Indo-Aryans became Sanskrit. But from time to time it lent its structure and wealth of diction to the dialects of the Outer Band. Under this influence, the Prakrits, Apabhramśa, and the modern Indo-Aryan languages in India came into existence²⁴. The basis of the languages thus evolved was Outland, but the body, Midland. The grammar was that of the *deśabhāshā* but the enrichment was due to attempts made to absorb (a) the expressiveness and beauty of the archaic literary language, or (b) to use its vocabulary, or (c) to draw upon Sanskrit²⁵.

24 Grierson, Indo-Aryan Languages, Sanskrit, Prakrit—*Encyclopædia Britannica*

25 Keith, *HSL* p 34

The language of the Aryans that immigrated to India belonged to that family of languages which is styled by the scholars as Indo-European. This speech soon began to reveal marked differences as dialects. But over and above the spoken dialects, there was one archaic and conventionalised speech-form that was employed by the priestly class among the Indo-Aryans for the cultivation of sacred poetry. This 'chhāndasa' dialect,²⁶ preserved to us in the *Rigveda*, represents the literary form of the oldest Indo-Aryan language, i.e. the language of the Aryans in India.

On the other hand, the spoken Indo-Aryan dialects or *deśabhāshās* were fast yielding to the tendencies of linguistic change. Perhaps the Śāryātas and Bhrigus who first came to Gujarāt used one of these. Konkani is perhaps descended from this dialect which was allied to, but preceded, Śaurasenī. It is likely that it was the dialect of the sea-faring Aryans—the Aparāntas, Bhrigukachchhas, and Konkanas on the West Coast who were connected with the Paraśurāma myth.²⁷

The dialects thus developed began to assume importance. The dialect of the Northern Indo-Aryans, which was nearest to the Vedic speech, was also developed by them, much more vigorously on account of the efforts of Brāhmanas to invest it with special sanctity and became classical Sanskrit. Authors, sacred and profane, prior to the sixth century before Christ began to give it a literary form of beauty. Pāṇini and his predecessors gave it a scientific form. In this wise it became the standard for future generations.

In this period, far away from the Madhyadeśa, Indo-Aryan dialects current among the people had entered the Prakrit or Middle Indo-Aryan stage. Buddha (6th century B.C.) and Mahāvīra preached in an Eastern variety of this dialect. We are on firmer ground in the third cen-

26 Chatterji, *Origin & Development of Bengali Language*, 1, 29-31, 76-79

27 cf. Munshi, *Linguistic Provinces and the Future of Bombay*, pp. 26-28

tury before Christ Aśokan edicts, intended for popular instruction, are inscribed in three varieties, the eastern, the north-western and the western dialect. The dialects and Pālī, the language of the Buddhist canon, represent the earliest phase of the Middle Indo-Aryan. The Western variety is used in the inscription at Mount Gīrnār. Some peculiar traits of this dialect appear to have been bequeathed to Gujarātī. Pālī is also traced by some scholars to a western *deśabhāṣhā* current in the Ujjayinī area²⁸. If this is correct, Pālī must have considerably influenced the dialect of Gujarāt of the period.

The forces of change operative within the spoken dialects worked up a further phase of the Middle Indo-Aryan known as the classical Prakrit stage. Its chief varieties were Māhārāshtrī, Śaurasenī, Māgadhī and Paisāchī, so called after the region in which each of them was current. The first three of these are found in Sanskrit dramas. The Śaurasenī variety resembling Sanskrit and spoken in the Mathurā region was put in the mouth of ladies and the *vidūshaka*, the clown, by the rules of dramaturgy. Bharata in his *Nāṭyaśāstra* mentions one Āvantī dialect which seems to be a variety of Śaurasenī probably current in Mālhwā and Gujarāt of that period. Besides, varieties of Prakrits known as Ardha-Māgadhī, the original language of the Jain Canon, and Jain Māhārāshtrī and Jain Śaurasenī, that is, the two commonly used Prakrits, mixed with Ardha-Māgadhī, were also used in Gujarāt. The redaction in Jain Māhārāshtrī of the Jain canon at Valabhīpura in Saurāshtra by the conference presided over by Devardhigaṇī (A D 500), indicates that this form of the language was favoured by the Jains at the time.

There is no doubt that in this period the *deśabhāṣhā* in Gujarāt and Konkan was influenced not only by Māhārāshtrī but the then prevailing Kannaḍa. An ancient Tamil tradition includes Gujarāt in the *Pañcha Dravida*

28 cf. Franke, *Pālī and Sanskrit*, pp. 127ff. Kuhn, *Beiträge zur Pālī Grammatik*, p. 9.

or the five Dravidian regions. Possibly it dates back to the time when South Gujarāt or Lāta (which included North Konkan) had not yet been brought under the influence of North India. In later times, during the Rāshtrakūta period, the influence of Kannaḍa was at the highest. This would explain the traces of that language in Gujarātī²⁹

These Prakrits, having been given a literary form, soon drifted away from the *deśabhāshā* and when its varieties spoken along the west coast were developed from a literary point of view, they came to be known as Apabhramśa, the corruption of the norm. In course of time Apabhramśa was standardized but the *deśī* element in its base began to assert itself more and more regionally, and accordingly developed several local varieties. One such literary variety was stated by Bhoja to be *Gaurjarī*, peculiar to the Gurjaras.

The *deśabhāshās*, all over the provinces, however, continued to develop on phonetic lines, evolving what are known as the New Indo-Aryan languages including Gujarātī, which is first found in literature in the eleventh century. Thus, age after age, the spoken language was intensively cultivated under the influence of Sanskrit as also of the literary language of the preceding age which had ceased to grow, achieving for itself a new stage in literary expression.

To summarise the position of languages in Gujarāt during the period under review

(a) The earliest phase of the Middle Indo-Aryan languages was in vogue before 200 B.C., and continued to be so for some centuries.

(b) Sanskrit, soon thereafter, became the literary and official language. In some parts of South Gujarāt, Kannaḍa also was in use.

(c) Jaina Māhārāshṭrī Prakrit was used by the Jain *sādhus* in the fourth and fifth centuries A.D.

²⁹ A. Master, "Some Parallelisms in Indo-Aryan and Dravidian Languages", *JBRAS*, 1930, p. 95

(d) In Saurāshtra, Gaurjarī Apabhramśa, having at its basis a variety of Śaurasenī Prakrit, was used as a literary vehicle from about the same time

(e) Possibly the speech of North Gujarāt or Ānarta had also some distinctive literature

King Guhasena of Valabhī (559-569), according to an inscription, wrote poems in Sanskrit, Prakrit and Apabhramśa ³⁰

V

From early times Jain *sādhus* were a cultural force in Gujarāt. Neminātha, the twenty-second Tīrthamkara, came from Saurāshtra. The Śakunikā Vihāra of Munisuvrata, the twentieth Tīrthamkara, was at Broach. The schools of Aryan learning in the North were deeply absorbed in solving questions of high philosophic and religious moment and in making an advance on the system of philosophy and ethics from which Mahāvīra had borrowed his negative creed. Royal patronage was extended mainly to the Brāhmanas and the Buddha *bhikshus*. The great imperial house of the Mauryas did not feel any attraction for Jainism. The imperial Guptas, devout worshippers of Viṣṇu and ardent conquerors as they were, do not appear to have admired a creed which spelt destruction to their masterful policy.

The Jain *sādhus*, celibates pledged for life to ceaseless travel and bent on the propagation of their faith, were, therefore, forced to explore more hospitable lands and went south and west. They turned for patronage and protection to Gujarāt with its cosmopolitan spirit and its poverty of great intellectual and literary tradition. Its rich middle class longed for some literary entertainment which, without putting an undue strain on its religious zeal, could give a sense of spiritual security. Denied the patronage of a highly cultured or literary audience, the Jain *sādhus* specialised in a form of literature which was a

30 BG, I p 90

means of religious propaganda as also a source of popular entertainment

To the Brāhmanas the literary and intellectual impulses of Mathurā, Kāśī and Nālandā were the breath of life. Royal patronage had made them independent of popular support, and they naturally showed interest only in that kind of literature which accorded with the higher standard prevailing in Madhyadeśa. They evinced no inclination to stoop to conquer the simple-minded or the idle rich of this distant colony.

Dharmakathā—religious story—is the category under which many forms of literature to which the Jain *sādhus* devoted themselves fall. The common element in all these *kathās* was an insistence on the gospel of renunciation by entering the order of Jain *sādhus*. One of the sections of the Jain scriptures is called *Dharmakathā-nuyoga*.

The Jains turned classical legends, legendary lives of saints, moral tales and anecdotes into *dharmakathās* in order to spread their doctrines. At times, the epic legends were re-written to suit this propaganda, more often, a Puranic hero's life-story was re-told, making him a Jain. These *kathās* based on legendary biography were called *charitas*. *Vasudevacharita* was first composed by Bhadrabāhu, Jain teacher of Chandragupta Maurya (c. 320 B.C.), and *Paumachariya*, the Jain version of the *Rāmāyana*, and *Harivamśachariya* by Vimala in c. A.D. 300.

Miraculous stories were also utilised for writing *dharmakathās*. Haribhadra (750) acknowledged his indebtedness to pre-existing *kathās* and, following ancient teachers, divided them into (i) *Dvya*, (ii) *Divyamānusha* and (iii) *Mānusha*. He classified them into (i) *Arthakāma*, (ii) *Samkīrna* and (iii) *Dharmakathā*. The general public, as was perfectly natural, took a fancy for the *kathās* in which love provided the central motive. The Jain *sādhu* knew human weaknesses very well. The author of *Vasudevahindi* insisted that *dharmakathās* should be properly diluted with good love stories in order to achieve the best results. Udyotana laid down that a

story should be like a newly wedded wife, decked with ornaments, auspicious, moving with graceful steps, sentimental, soft in speech and ever pleasing to the minds of men ³¹

The *dharmakathā*, with this object in view, was given a peculiar turn in Gujarāt. The stories of kings did not appeal to the commercial classes. Social *dharmakathā*, however, which dealt with the love-affairs of a daughter of a *nagara-śeṭha* or a merchant prince, acquisition of wealth as a substitute for heroism, and renunciation according to Jain tenets as the end of life, caught the popular imagination.

VI

Out of the several social *dharmakathās* referred to in Jain works, the fragments of *Tarangavatī* composed before 500 alone survive to give us an idea of what these *kathās* must have been like. It was composed by Pādalipta. He was born in Kosala and was a protégé of the Sātavāhana kings of the South. He was the reputed founder of Pālītāna in Kāthiāwār, one of the places of Jain pilgrimage. The *kathā*, written in Prakrit, contained many *deśī* words, and was mentioned in *Anuyogadvāra* (500) ³². Various authors from the eighth century onwards have extolled the story and compared it to the Gangā Śīlāchārya says that a story which lacks any trace of this *kathā* has neither art nor beauty. Again, another unknown author is surprised that the god of death should escape with an unbroken head when he carried away the author of so beautiful a work. The original work is lost but its merits can be judged from a summary in 1643 *gāthās* composed by a process of very careful editing by Nemichandra, and recently brought to light by Dr Ernest Leumann. This short *kathā* entitled *Tarangalolā*, shows how later authors

31 cf Muni Jinavijaya's *Kuvalayamālā*, BV, II p 80 n7.

सालंकारा सुहृया ललियपया मउयमंजुलुल्लावा ।

सहियाण देइ हरिसं उव्वूढा नववहू चेव ।

32 Winternitz, *HIL*, II, p 522

of such *kathās* inartistically developed some elements of Pādalīpta's tale without preserving its charm. It is pre-eminently a love story of middle class life, in the poetic style of the period, full of delicate touches and refined sentiments. But for its depressing end, it is a thing of beauty.

In Magadha, a young and beautiful Jain nun goes to the wife of a *nagara-śetha* for alms. She preaches the usual religious precepts, and, on being asked, tells her life-story to justify her early renunciation. Her original name was Tarangavatī. She was a daughter of the *nagara-śetha* of Kauśāmbī. Brought up in luxury, educated with care, she was as beautiful as the *champakā* flower. Once she went to a garden and seeing *chakravāka* birds, the Indian symbol of undying love, on the lake, she swooned. Her friends revived her, and asked her what had caused her to faint so suddenly.

Tarangavatī then told them the story of her previous life. She had been a *chakravākī*, and had lived with her mate on a lake in Angadeśa. Their love had transcended all earthly bonds. A hunter, trying to shoot an arrow at an elephant bathing in the lake, had missed his mark and killed her mate. Bewailing the loss of her beloved, she had immolated herself on the fire lighted by the repentant hunter to cremate the bird. On seeing the birds sporting on the lake, the past had flashed upon her.

Once the past was recalled, Tarangavatī wanted to meet the lost comrade of her former life. Not being able to find him, she found solace only in drawing pictures depicting the experiences of her former bird-life and exhibiting them. The *chakravāka*, who was born as a son to a rich merchant in the same town, saw the pictures. The past birth came back to his mind, and remembering his lost love, he fainted. The lovers were soon brought together. But their parents objected to the match. Elopement was the only way open to them, and the lovers took it. They sought refuge in a forest, but were attacked by a band of robbers who carried them away to be offered as sacrifice to the goddess Kālī.

One of the robbers, however, heard the story of their past life and recognised them as the very birds whose death he had caused in his past life when hunting an elephant. He, therefore, allowed them to escape. From the robbers' camp, the two ran away to a town where their identity was discovered. The parents received them with open arms, and twelve months of unalloyed happiness followed.

The story woven so far with consummate art is in the end made to subserve a religious purpose. Life cannot and must not be anything but an ordeal. The lovers meet a *sādhu* who tells them the story of his past. They recognise in him the hunter who had been the cause of their death in their former life, and the robber who had helped them to effect their escape. Dire truisms on life's futility follow. They leave love and happiness and mourning relatives behind them, and take to a life of renunciation as inculcated by Jain precepts. Each goes a different way. The story closes on a conventional note. Everybody expresses horror at the sinful ways of the world and proclaims Jain religion as the sole refuge.

The story has the elements of romance so dear to the Indian heart, the inseparable *chakravāka* birds and the ideal of undying love running through a succession of lives. Both are depicted with a charm difficult to meet with in later social *kathās*. The *chakravāka* episode, even in the form in which it has come down to us, is among the most beautiful in Indian literature.

CHAPTER II

GUJARĀT IN THE AGE OF IMPERIAL KĀNYAKUBJA (A D 550-950)

The Hūnas—Valabhīpura Kings (509-766)—The Chāvaḍās—Kingdom of Gurjaratīā (c 400-953)—The Gurjaras—Segregation of cultural forces—Sanskrit literature—Kāvya—Nāṭakas and Champūs—Bhaṭṭi (c 641)—Māgha (c 700)—Jainism—Early Jain literature—Haribhadra (c 750)—*Samarāṅchchakāhā*—*Dhūrtākhyāna*—Udyotana (779)—*Kuvalayamālā*—Siddharshi (c 906)—Rājasekhara—The influence of Sanskrit—Language and literature in the country

SUFFICIENT materials are now available to show that this age was not a dark one but as powerful, though not as brilliant, as the classical age of the Guptas

Emperor Skanda-gupta appears to have lost Gujarāt a few years after the date of his Gīrnār inscription (456). With the death of his descendant, Budhagupta, in c 500, the power and glory of the Gupta Empire vanished. Whatever was left of it was split into two sectors, viz the Western, consisting of Mālwā and Avantī and the Eastern, comprising Magadha and North Bengal. A considerable part of modern Gujarāt formed part of the Western section. The Gupta emperors maintained a military governor in Ānartapura (Vadnagar) in North Gujarāt and at Bhrīgukachchha (Broach), which then included parts of modern North Konkan.

About 465 the Hūnas under Toramāna entered India, first established themselves at Pavaiya in the Punjab, and finally reached Ujjayinī (c 500). The then ruler of Mālwā, whose sway extended over central Gujarāt, was forced to retire to Bengal before the overwhelming might of the Hūna conqueror. About 512 Mihirakula, the son of Toramāna, was the most powerful ruler in North-West India. But in c 520 he was defeated by Yaśodharman Vishnuvardhana, and in 533 Mālwā was governed by

his military governor. In 550 Īśānavarman overthrew the descendants of Viṣṇuvardhana, made Kanauj the imperial capital, and became the unchallenged master of North India. A considerable part of the main land of Gujarāt was included in the kingdom of Śarvavarman, the son of Īśānavarman.

I

On the break-up of the Gupta Empire, Senāpati Bhattārka, a rebel general of the empire, declared independence and ruled over the kingdom consisting of Saurāshtra and a part of Ānarta from his capital Valabhīpura, modern Vala. His descendants also acquired a part of the main land of Gujarāt. In about 550 Śankaragana, the king of the Kalachuri dynasty, whose kingdom included the valley of the Mahī river and Lāta, drove out Sangrāmasmha, the last viceroy of the Guptas ruling at Bhrīgukachchha, and appointed a Bhil king as a feudatory to rule over the valley of the Narmadā.

About this time, a Brāhmana by name Harichandra, who claimed to be a Pratihāra, founded a small kingdom at Bhillamāla or modern Śrīmāla near Abu, and ruled over the region round the mount and part of Mārwar which was then called 'Gurjara' or 'Gurjaradeśa'. Harichandra and his descendants soon grew powerful, and in about 580 Dadda, perhaps the fourth son of Harichandra, invaded Lāta, defeated the Bhil feudatory and extended his rule to the Narmadā valley. Thus the Gurjara kings of Śrīmāla conquered South Gujarāt and weakened the power of Valabhī as also of the Kalachuri kings of Mālwa. The Gurjara kings appear to have extended their conquests even in the north, and about 600 fought Prabhākaravardhana, the king of Thāneswar and the father of emperor Śrī Harsha.

About this time Dakṣiṇāpatha or Deccan was also evolving a consolidated centre of power. About 500 Pula-keśi of the Chālukya family captured Vātāpī, modern Bādāmi in the Bijāpur District of the State of Bombay,

and founded a kingdom. His son invaded Mālhwā in 601. In 606 Śrī Harsha, or to give him his full title Śrī Harshavardhana, became the emperor of the Uttarāpatha. Two years later, in 608, Pulakeśī II succeeded to the throne of Vātāpī and Konkan, Lāta, Gurjara and Mālhwā became victims of the rivalry between the emperors of the North and the South. The kings of Valabhīpura and the Gurjara kings of Broach retained some kind of independence, and Śrī Harsha gave his daughter in marriage to Dhruvabhata or Dhruvasena II, king of Valabhīpura. Jayabhata and Dadda II, the Gurjara kings of Broach, were under the suzerainty of Pulakeśī II, the Chālukya emperor of the South.

Luckily the picture of the seventh century Gujarāt has survived in the diary of an eyewitness, Hiuen Tsang the great Chinese pilgrim, who visited Gujarāt in 641. The traveller went from Nāsik to the region called Bhrīgukachchha, the name by which evidently South Gujarāt was then known. As in all international ports, so in Broach, the residents were found by this pious pilgrim mean, deceitful, ignorant, orthodox and heterodox. North of the Broach district was Mālhwā with its capital of the same name somewhere on the south bank of the river Mahī. There were hundreds of Buddhist monasteries in the land, and of the Buddhist *bhikshus*, Bhadraruchi was the greatest. The present Ahmedābād district was possibly called Atālī, which I am inclined to identify with Ashlālī, a village near Ahmedābād. From there the pilgrim went to Khetaka, which may be either modern Kaira or Khedbrahmā near Idar, and thence to Valabhīpura. It was then ruled by Dhruvabhata, the son-in-law of Śrī Harsha.

Valabhīpura was a city of power, wealth and culture. It had a large library of sacred books. Sthiramati and Gunamati, two Buddhist monks, had composed their treatises in its university. Their fame had reached even China, and in consequence they had been invited there. The country was happy and prosperous, and its merchants carried on an extensive trade. The population was dense, religious institutions flourished. More than a hundred

merchants were worth over a lakh. Rare and valuable articles secured from distant places were amassed by rich men

Ānarta had its capital at Ānandapura, which was another important town. From there the pilgrim proceeded to Bhīllamāla or Śrīmāla, the capital of Gujjara. It was a city of learning. According to Puranic records it was ten to twenty miles in extent and had no less than 11,000 Śivalingas and 4,000 *mathas* where learning in all its branches was pursued.¹ Bhīllamāla evidently was a great centre of Aryan culture and learning in the 7th century.

The whole of Gujarāt was well populated. The large cities were Ujjayinī, Bhīllamāla, Verāvala, Valabhī and Mālava, while Bhrīgukachchha, Āśāpallī, Khetaka, Ānandapura were comparatively small. They were all centres of learning. The Sābarmatī valley was also a populous locality. In South Gujarāt, Jambusar, Akṛūreśvara (modern Ankleshwar), Śrībhavana (modern Sarbhon) and Navasārikā (modern Navasāri) were towns of importance.

South Gujarāt was ruled by the feudatories of Pulakesī II who had defeated the armies of Śrī Harsha of Kanauj.

II

With the early kingdom of Gujjara or Gurjara are associated important questions relating to Indian history.

A detailed examination of the earliest epigraphic and literary records yields certain notable facts.²

About 550 Gurjara was the name of modern Mārwar with Bhīllamāla or Śrīmāla as capital. Its kings were called Gurjaras and Gurjareśvaras. One dynasty claimed descent from Harichandra, a Brāhmana, another from Lakshmana, the brother of Śrī Rāmachandra.³ In 640, this

1 cf HK, II, intr pp XCI-XCIII

2 cf GG, III, pp 7-30

3 cf Jodhpur Inscription of Pratihāra Bāuka (JRAS, 1894, pp 4-9), st 5, Gwālior Prasasti Mihirabhoja (Ep Ind, XVIII, pp 107-114), st 3

विप्रः श्रीहरिचन्द्राख्य-पत्नी भद्रा च क्षत्रियाः

ताभ्यां तु ये सुता जाता प्रतिहाराश्च तान् विदुः

region was called Gujjar and its king was known to be a Kshatriya. When these Gurjara kings took Kānyakubja and founded an empire it was known to Arab travellers as Juzr or Gujjar⁴. The extent of this empire included parts of the Punjab, Rājputāna, Central India and Gujarāt which were ruled by warrior clans which came out of Gurjara. Parts of modern Jodhpur, Jaipur and the Ābu region, were known as Gurjaratrā or Gujarāt till 1050. The people migrating from this part of the country were also known as Gurjaras. In 960 these Gurjaras occupied parts of Alwar. The Gurjara herdsmen in Kāshmir and Hindukush use a language which is similar to Mevātī and closely allied to Mārwārī. There is no evidence to prove that Gurjara Gauda Brāhmanas, the Śrīmāla Brāhmanas, the Porvāds and Osvāls who were once classed as Kshatriyas, were of foreign extraction.

According to the theory accepted by some authorities, however, the Gurjaras were a foreign race which entered India c 400-500, they took kindly to Indian culture, founded the kingdom of Gurjaratrā, accepted the Hindu caste system, conquered Ānarta and Lāta in c 700, subdued the Valabhī kings in c 750, and abandoned Bhīllamāla in c 953 to go and settle in Ānarta, and to make their chief Mūlarāja, king of Anahilavāḍa Pattana.

The word Gurjara, no doubt, does not appear before c 500. The names of some of the early rulers are non-Sanskritic. There was a Caucasus tribe called Khajars, the sound of which is similar to Gurjaras. But the theory does not quite accord with the records. Its Brāhmanas, Kshatriyas, and Vaiśyas are found fully absorbed in the

Continued from page 27

तेषा वशे सुजन्मा क्रमनिहितपदे धाम्नि वज्रेषु घोर
 रामः पौलस्त्यहिल क्षतविहति समित्कर्म चक्रे पलाशैः ।
 श्लाघ्यस्तस्यानुजोऽसौ मघवमुदमुषो मेघनादस्य सख्ये
 सौमित्रिस्तीव्रदण्डः प्रतिहरणविधेयं प्रतीहार आसीत् ॥ ३ ॥

4. *HIED*, I, pp 4, 13ff, 21ff, etc

fold of *Ārya Dharma* The tradition of the Gurjara rulers was a continuation of the tradition of the post-Gupta rulers like Śrī Harsha and the Bhattārakas of Valabhī The linguistic, literary and cultural traditions developed unbroken from 550 to 1199 when the third empire of Gurjaradeśa, that of the Chālukyas, was overwhelmed by 'Alāud-dīn Khiljī's armies

On the death of Śrī Harsha the imperial sceptre passed to his grandson, Dharasena IV of Valabhīpura But the Chālukyas were gathering strength in the South and the Gurjara power was gaining strength in the North

In 711 Muhammad-bīn-Qāsim, the Arab general, captured Sindh, and in 725 Junayd, the general of Caliph Hashim (724-743), sent two armies to invade Gujarāt One proceeded to Navsārī and was destroyed by Pulakeśi Avanijanāśraya, the Chālukya feudatory of Navsārī The other raiding army proceeded north, defeated the rulers of Kachchha, Saurāshtra, Valabhīpura, Chitod and Gurjara, destroyed Bhīllamāla, and laid Ujjain waste⁵ But Nāgabhata I, a scion of the Pratihāra family of Gurjaradeśa, drove back the Arab forces and founded a strong power He and his descendants were styled Gurjareśvaras or Gurjaras from Gurjara or Gurjaratrā (the Mārwar and Ābu region) over which they first ruled

About 750 the empire of the Chālukyas of the South including South Gujarāt and parts of Mālwa passed into the hands of the Rāshtrakūta conqueror, Dantidurga And for two hundred years South Gujarāt became a battlefield between the Imperial Rāshtrakūtas of the South and the Gurjaras of the North In c 780 Vatsarāja, the Pratihāra king of Gurjaradeśa, conquered Ānarta and Saurāshtra and became the suzerain of most of the kingdoms of North India It was during his reign that Udyotana wrote his *Kuvalayamālā* at Jhālor and Jinasena

5 *Bombay Gazetteer*, I, Part I, p 109 n2

शरत्तसीरमुरोद्धारिणि तरलतरतारतरवारितोदितसैन्धवकच्छेल्लसौराष्ट्र-
चावोटक मौय्यगुर्जरादिरा (ज्ये) नि शेषदाक्षिणात्यक्षितिपतिजि ..

wrote his *Harivamśa Purāna* at Wadhwan⁶ A triangular contest for all-India supremacy began between Vatsarāja of Gurjaradeśa, Dharmapāla of Bengal and Rāshtrakūta Dhruva of Vātāpī North Gujarāt continued within the domains of Nāgabhata II (792-834), the son of Vatsarāja, who vanquished the Pāla kings of Bengal

In c 807-8 Govinda III, the Rāshtrakūta, overran the North, and lived for some months at Sarbhon, now in the Broach District But he died in 814, and Nāgabhata II captured Kanauj, transferred his capital there and became the emperor of the North Medapāta, Gurjaratrā, Sapādalaksha, Ānarta, the mainland up to the Mahī and Mālwa formed part of the empire which stretched from Multān to Bengal and the Himālayas to the Mahī⁷ South of the Mahī ran the writ of the Rāshtrakūtas

About 835 Nāgabhata's son, Mihira Bhoja (c 835-888), referred to in Gujarātī tradition as Bhūyaḍa of Kalyānakataka (Kanauj), had to subdue Ānarta and Saurāshtra again He appointed military governors at Junāgaḍh and Wadhwan The Mahī divided the Gurjara empire of the North from the Rāshtrakūta empire of the South, South Gujarāt changing hands from time to time Mihira Bhoja, the Gurjaraśvara, was one of the greatest emperors in history, and the Arabs, who dreaded him most, called

⁶ cf *Kuvalayamālā* (*Bhāratiya Vidyā*, II, pp 84-87), st 18, 20, 21, 24, 26, 1A, XV, p 141

तुगमलव जिणभवनमणहर सावयाउल विसम ।
जाबालिपुरं अठ्ठावय व अह अत्थि पुहईए ॥ १८ ॥
तत्थट्ठिएण अह चोहसीए चेतत्स कण्हवक्खम्मि ।
णिम्मविआ बोहिकरी भव्वाण होउ सव्वाण ॥ २० ॥
परभडभिउडिभंगो पणईयणरोहणीकलाचदो ।
सिरिचच्छरायणामो णरहत्थी पत्थिवो जइया ॥ २१ ॥
चवकुलावयवेण आयरियउज्जोअणेण रइया मे ।
सिबसतिबोहिमोक्खाण साहिया होउ भवियाण ॥ २४ ॥
सगकाले बोलीणे वरिसाण सएहि सत्तहि गएहीं ।
एकदिणेणूर्णेह रइया अवरण्हेलाए ॥ २६ ॥

⁷ cf Munshi, *GG*, III, p. 62f

his empire Juzr or Gurjara. He was succeeded by Mahendrapāla (888-910), and he, by his son Mahīpāla (c 912-948), the last Mahārājādhirājā of Āryāvarta.

In 940 Kṛishna III, the Rāshtrakūta, invaded the North and in a swift campaign destroyed the empire of Gurjaradeśa. It was a historic event. Most of the feudatories became independent. The military governors of Junāgadh and Wadhvān disappeared. The Rāshtrakūtas occupied parts of Rājputāna so far ruled by a feudatory of Kanauj. The mainland of Gujarāt and Mālwa were ruled by the Paramāra king, Siyaka II, who was the feudatory of Kṛishna III. Mūlarāja, the son of Rājī, perhaps the grandson of Mahīpāla or Mahendrapāla, was driven out from Gurjaratrā. Fleeing south, he captured Anahilavāda Pattana and occupied Sārasvata Mandala, the valley of the Sarasvatī. In 997, for the first time, we find Mūlarāja called the 'Lord of Gurjara', a mere title, for the name of Gujarāt appertained to a different region altogether.

Under the imperial Gurjaras life in Gujarat reached a high level of art and learning under the inspiration of Kanauj. The temple of Modhera (c 800), the temples of Khajurāho (c 900-1000), and the Vimalśā temples of Ābu (c 1030-1050) are the relics of the magnificent tradition of art which flourished in the hey-day of Gurjaradeśa. Bhatti of Valabhīpura (c 641), Subandhu and Bāna (c 650), Bhavabhūti (c 700) and Vākpati (c 750) of Kanauj, Māgha (c 700) of Śrīmāla, Haribhadra (c 700) of Chitrakūṭa, Medhātithi and Devala the great law-givers, and Rājaśekhara (c 900) the poet laureate of Mahīpāla, the grandson of Mihira Bhoja, are the representatives of a great age of intellectual and cultural activity.

The story of Jayaśekhara and Vanarāja Chāvdā and his descendants ruling from Anahilavāda Pattana between c 765 to 942 is but a vague relic of some minor dynasty of local chiefs and of the conflicts between them and Mihira Bhoja of Kanauj who survives in the tradition as the Bhūyada Kalyāṇakaṭaka.

III

The account narrated in the first edition of *Gujarāt and Its Literature* following earlier histories that the history of Gujarāt began with Mūlarāja's capture of Anahilavāda in 942,⁸ is not reliable. What is now Gujarāt, in fact, then participated in the larger life associated with the empire of Vatsarāja, Nāgabhata II, Mihira Bhoja, Mahendrapāla and Mahīpāla (c 780 to 940). It had then a virile tradition. Its cavalry is once recorded as having driven out the Rāshtrakūta forces. A Brāhmana from Vadnagar was the guardian of the important fortresses of Gwālīor. Medhātīthi laid down a law of breadth and vigour. A Brāhmana could marry a Kshatriya or a Vaiśya girl, and could adopt even a Kshatriya son.⁹ Śūdras could offer oblations to certain sacrificial fires and perform all *samskāras* except recital of Vedic *mantras*.¹⁰ Converts to Islam were brought back into the fold by nominal ceremonials.¹¹ Āryāvarta was not confined to India. Wherever an Ārya king established the Vedic religion it was Āryāvarta.¹² In fact absorption of persons of other faiths into *Ārya Dharma* was a common feature in Sindh and Saurāshtra.

8 cf Forbes, *Rās Mālā* (New Ed, London, 1878), p 199, Forbes' *Rās Mālā* (Edited by H G Rawlinson, Oxford, 1924), I, p 248

9 Medhātīthi on Manu, IX, 168

कुलानुरूपैर्गुणैः क्षत्रियादिरपि ब्राह्मणस्य दत्तको युज्यते ।

10 Medhātīthi on Manu, X, 127

अनुपनीतत्वात् श्रुतिविहितधर्माभावे स्मृतिविषये सामान्यविहितधर्मा यथोक्त-
प्रकारास्ते नास्य प्रतिबिध्यन्ते । तथा च स्मृत्यन्तर पाकयज्ञैः स्वयं यजेत अनुज्ञातोऽस्य
नमस्कारोऽस्मिन् इति ।

11 Kane, *History of Dharmasāstra*, II, pp 299-301, *Devala-smṛiti*, st 1-10, 17-22, 30-1, 48, 54 ff etc

12 Medhātīthi on Manu, II, 22, 23

आर्या वर्तन्ते तत्र पुनः पुनरुद्भवन्त्याक्रम्यापि न चिरं तत्र म्लेच्छा स्यातारो
भवन्ति । यदि कश्चित् क्षत्रियजातीयो राजा साध्वाचरणो म्लेच्छान्पराजयेन्चातुर्वर्ण्यं
वासयेन्म्लेच्छा इवाचार्यवर्त इव चाण्डालान्वयवस्थापयेत्तोऽपि स्याद्यज्ञियः । यतो न
भूमि स्वतो बुष्टा संसर्गाद्धि सा बुध्यति ।

Of course, Kānyakubja was the political capital of North India, and more. It was a sacred place, the seat of the imperial Ikshvākus. All directions were to be measured from it.¹³ The dress worn by the ladies of the capital was adorable. "Women of other countries," says Rājaśekhara, "should study the ways in which the ladies of Kānyakubja dressed and bedecked themselves, braided their hair, and spoke their words."¹⁴

IV

The period from c 550 to 950 was an organic one from the literary and cultural point of view. Bhīllamāla, Ujjayinī and Valabhī were centres of cultural and literary activity, but the literary tradition and influence were the same. An account of the literary achievements of this period in Sanskrit, Prakrit and Apabhramśa, therefore, would include not only those of the authors who came from Gujarāt but of all those who flourished in Gurjaradeśa.

The period under review was one of the most fruitful in Sanskrit literature. Epic and dramatic works were composed, grammar and rhetoric were studied, law and philosophy were developed. And Sanskrit became the most powerful of the influences operating on the culture of the people. It was not only the language of the court and

13 RKM, p 94

‘तत्रापि महोदय मूलमवधीकृत्य’ इति यायाचरीयः ।

14 *Bālarāmāyana*, X, 90

यो मार्गः परिधानकर्मणि गिरा या सूक्तिमुद्राक्रमे

भङ्गिर्या कबरीचयेषु रचनं यद्भूषणालीषु च ।

दृष्टं सुन्दरि कान्यकुब्जललनालोकैरिहान्यच्च य-

च्छिक्षन्ते सकलासु दिक्षु तरसा तत्कौतुकिन्यः स्त्रियः ।

X 86 इमे अन्तर्वेदीभूषण पञ्चाला.

यत्रार्थे न तथानुरज्यति कविर्ग्रामीणगीर्गुम्फने

शास्त्रीयासु च लौकिकेषु च यथा भव्यासु नव्योक्तिषु ।

पञ्चालास्तच्च पश्चिमेन त इमे वामा गिरां भाजनाः

त्वद्दृष्टेरतिथीभवन्तु यमुना त्रिस्रोतस चान्तरा ॥

of belles-lettres, but the medium of the highest thought and noblest aspirations. It impressed its genius upon Gujarāt, and in spite of its fluid social and commercial life checked its development on alien lines.

By the sixth century of the Christian era, Sanskrit literature was already several centuries old. Kālidāsa, the greatest Sanskrit poet and one of the greatest of any age or clime, had lived but a century before, laying the foundation of a new art and a great tradition. His influence continued to dominate the whole period under review though with declining purity.

Generally speaking the Sanskrit literature of the period had an aristocratic and erudite character, it was written for the learned. The poets were required to undergo an elaborate course of studies and master several branches of learning including grammar, rhetoric, poetics and lexicography. The vast store of myths and legends treasured in the two great epics, the *Rāmāyana* and the *Mahābhārata*, supplied the themes, but the literary tradition tended to become esoteric. Poetics was assiduously cultivated. The theory and rules of dramaturgy were required to be rigidly followed. (1) *Mahākāvya* (the artistic or court epic), (2) *Khanda-kāvya* (long descriptive poem), (3) *Gadya-kāvya* (the prose romance) and (4) *Rūpaka* (drama) were the prevalent literary genres as contrasted with the simpler folk-tale or didactic and gnostic literature of an earlier age. But Kālidāsa remained the unchallenged master in *Mahākāvya*, *Khanda-kāvya* and *Rūpaka*, his works were the model which inspired most poetic efforts, however poor in quality. The only other form was the prose romance, for which Dandin's *Daśakumāracharita* furnished the pattern.

The *Mahākāvya*, which owed its rise to the *Rāmāyana* and the *Mahābhārata* had, under the influence of Kālidāsa's *Raghuvamśa*, become a refined and polished epic, dominated by one sentiment, dealing with the adventures of a royal hero and his family. But literary art spent itself in description rather than in narration. Soon

Kālidāsa's model, compact in form, elegant in expression and classic in self-restraint, underwent a change for the worse. The poet, anxious to win the praises of the pedant, turned a grammarian or a verbal trickster, and made a great literary vehicle the mere medium of tiresome artifice.

In tradition Kālidāsa is closely associated with Ujjayinī. The nine literary gems of legendary fame were also associated with the city. But within a hundred years of the master's death, the literary tradition had considerably deteriorated. Subandhu, placed about the end of the sixth century, reflected this new tradition. Several references in his works point to the conclusion that he lived in Mālwā. *Vāsavadattā*, his only surviving work, is the earliest prose romance in India. The style is highly ornate, the narrative is meagre, literary artifice 'with a pun in every syllable' abounds. Long-winded descriptions appear to have come into vogue as the most important part of literary creations, a feature which characterises the whole period. The author disregards both character and incident. The story, though romantic, loses its force and beauty in the endless verbal trappings which the author weaves round it.

V

The tradition of Subandhu was carried forward by Bāna (c 650) whose *Kādambarī* is rightly acknowledged to be the best prose romance in Sanskrit literature. This and his other work, *Harshacharita*, gave a new inspiration and technique to the literary art of the age.

Harshacharita is a *kāvya* woven round the early life of Śrī Harsha. It gives a vivid and graphic picture of the time. Incidentally, with Hiuen Tsang, the poet shares the honour of having given to posterity the life and times of one of the greatest rulers of India. He thus describes how he set out on his journey to meet his patron.

He rose early in the morning. Having taken his bath he put on a clean white piece of cloth. With rosary in hand he recited Vedic

mantras which he was to recite on his journey. He then worshipped the idol of Śiva, the god of gods. He first bathed it in milk, then offered sweet-smelling flowers, incense and pigments with great devotion. He also offered many other things and waved the lights before it with devotion. The fire-god was also propitiated by sacrifice. The offerings of ghee and sesamum made its flame go the right way. According to his means he gave presents to Brāhmanas. Having gone round the sacrificial cow which stood facing the east, he applied white powder to his body, put on white garlands, wore white clothes and put *siddhārtha* in the hair on his head. The elders smelt him on the head by way of blessing. Putting forward his right leg first he started from Pīṭikūta village followed by his relatives who had in their hands flowers and fruits. They also chanted Vedic *mantras*.¹

Kādambarī was left incomplete by the author and finished by his son Bhūshana. The work lacks proportion. The narrative is literally stifled by descriptions. No detail, however far-fetched, escapes the author. The work displays little art in characterisation or in presentation of the story. But it contains a series of vivid word-pictures of nature. The author's eye never misses colour, nor his ear music of the softest kind. He can be fanciful and even slightly humorous when he wants to. His fancy is rich, his vocabulary unlimited. The prose, in spite of its elaborate and endless compounds, has an element of poetic rhythm unsurpassed in any other work. The work created a profound impression on the literary movement of the period and lifted the tedious verbosity of the age into a living art.

Bāna's patron, Śrī Harsha, was also an author. Three of his plays, *Priyadarśikā*, *Ratnāvalī* and *Nāgānanda* have

15 *Harshacharita* (NS Ed), pp 56-7

अथान्यस्मिन्नहनुत्थाय प्रातरेव स्नात्वा धृतधौतधवलदुकूलवासा गृहीताक्षमाल-
प्रास्थानिकानि सूक्तानि मन्त्रपदानि बहुश समाचर्य देवदेवस्य विरूपाक्षस्य
क्षीरस्तनपनुरसरां सुरभिकुसुमधूपगन्धध्वजबलिबिलेपनप्रदीपबहुला विधाय पूजां
परमया भक्त्या प्रथमहुततरलितत्वग्बिचटनचटुलमुखरशिखाशेखरं प्राज्याज्या-
हुतिप्रवर्धितदक्षिणाचिष भगवन्तमाशुशुक्षिणि हुत्वा दत्त्वा द्युम्न यथाविद्यमानं
द्विजेभ्यः प्रदक्षिणीकृत्य प्राङ्मुखीं नैचिकीं, शुक्लाङ्गराग. शुक्लमाल्य शुक्लवासा
शिखासक्तसिद्धार्थकः... आघ्रातः, शिरसि कुलवृद्धं. मौहूर्तिकमतेन कृतनक्षत्र-
दोहदः... प्रणम्य कुलदेवताभ्यः कुसुमफलपणिभिरप्रतिरथं जपद्विनिजद्विजैर-
नुगम्यमानः प्रथमचलितदक्षिणचरणः प्रीतिकूटान्निरगात्।

come down to us The author borrowed his plots from Gunādhya's lost work His style is free from the artificial elaborateness associated with his age

Valabhīpura was the capital of Kāthiāwār at the time, famous for its riches, learning and piety During the reign of Śrīdharasena, possibly fourth of the name, flourished the poet Bhatti Evidently the city had its literary masters, of whom the poet appears to be the most prominent His only known work is *Bhattikāvya* or *Rāvanavadha* It was the original on which Hemachandra modelled *Dvyāś-
raya* It was composed with the two-fold purpose of illustrating the rules of Sanskrit grammar and rhetoric, and of providing literary entertainment In such a work naturally the poet is smothered by the grammarian Though tradition gives a great position to Bhatti, it is only because of his skill in achieving this dual purpose of dubious literary value

Māgha wrote his works under the literary influence of Bhatti and Bhāravi He was the son of Dattaka Sarvāśraya and the grandson of Suprabhadeva, who was the minister of king Varmalāta, whose inscription dated c 624 has been recovered ¹⁶ The Jain Prabandhas make him a resident of Bhīllamāla or Śrīmāla His association with Bhoja is clearly legendary, for the great Mihira Bhoja lived in the middle of the 9th century and the Paramāra Bhoja in the 11th century The poet was rich and liberal and his wife Malhanadevī also shared the generous instincts of her husband

The merits ascribed to Māgha by later critics are clearly exaggerations ¹⁷ The theme of Śiśupāla's death borrowed from the Sabhā Parvan of the *Mahābhārata* was touched up by the author with remarkable skill and luxuriance of expression; but under the influence of Bhatti

¹⁶ cf Keith, *HSL*, p 124, De, *HSL*, I, p 189

¹⁷ cf

उपमा कालिदासस्य भारवेरर्थगौरवम् ।

दण्डिनः पदलालित्यं माघे सन्ति त्रयो गुणाः ॥

तावद्भा भारवेर्भाति यावन्माघस्य नोदयः ।

उदिते च पुनर्माघे भारवेर्भा रवेरिव ॥

he succumbed to the time-honoured tradition of using a romantic poem to illustrate the rules of grammar. Characterization and narrative, in consequence, came to be regarded by the author as subsidiary factors in the composition. The poet however could not approach his master Bhāravi at his best.

Bhavabhūti alone of the poets of the period rescued the drama from this decadent tradition. He, otherwise called Śrīkantha, was the son of Nilakantha, and belonged to the learned family of Brāhmanas of Padmapura, stated to be in Vīdarbha, modern Berār.¹⁸ His *Mālatīmādhava* was enacted on the occasion of the fair of Lord Kālapriya which is identified with Mahākāleśvara of Ujjayinī. He is placed later than Kālidāsa and Bāna. If the *Rājataranginī* contains reliable information, Bhavabhūti and Vākpati, the author of *Gaudavaho*, were under the patronage of Yaśovarman of Kānyakubja.¹⁹

VI

The Jain *sādhus* were very active during the five centuries under review, but the record of their activities has to be examined with caution.

The later Jain *sādhu* has preserved this record. Whatever he wrote, his disciples studied, and the libraries of Jain temples in Gujarāt and Rājaputāna preserved. When orthodoxy surrenders its treasures to the printing press, the history of Jainism, of Prakrit, Apabhramśa and Gujarāt will have to be written anew. But works, published so far, have made a considerable contribution to the history and literature of the period. They are of great linguistic and sociological value, but, except for the biographical details of the writer and his teachers, and the record of reigns, they contain unreliable historical material. It is disconnected, one-sided, and, in some cases, distorted by

18 cf. De, *op cit*, p. 278

19 *Rājataranginī*, IV, 144,

कविर्वाक्यतिराजश्रीभवभूत्यादि सेवितः।

जितो ययौ यशोवर्मा तद्गुणस्तुतिचन्द्रिताम्॥

religious bias, it is drawn very often from popular Jain traditions, sometimes it conflicts with the facts authenticated by contemporary records, and provides a wrong historical perspective. But such as it is, it is sufficient to provide a correct estimate of the literary activities pursued by the Jains.

About 500 Brahmanism and Buddhism dominated Saurāshtra and Gujarāt, but Valabhīpura was hospitable enough to welcome the conference of *sādhus* which redacted the Jain canon, thereafter called the *Valabhī Vāchanā*.

Jainism, like Buddhism, was an offshoot of Aryan thought and religious impulse. Neither Mahāvira, nor his disciples, ever claimed to teach any but an Aryan doctrine. Rebirth, the supremacy of the five great vows, the efficacy of detachment, *vairāgya*, and the goal of final emancipation, *kawalya*, which they taught were common to other Indian religious movements. Though Jainism did not attract a large Brahmanical following, its *sādhus* were often drawn from that class. About the first century of the Christian era, some of its missionaries were learned Brāhmanas, whose ambition was to see that their tenets acquired a place of honour among the learned in the land.

Vimala's *Paumachariyam*, written in Jain Māhārāshtri Prakrit, was one of a large number of attempts to alter *Rāmāyana* to suit the needs of the Jains. Works like *Nandīsūtra*, composed about the time of the Valabhī redaction, show that the religious and literary activities of Jain *sādhus* were influenced by the *Vedas*, *Mahābhārata*, *Rāmāyana*, the *Purānas*, the well-known systems of philosophy, the *Arthaśāstra* of Kautilya and the *Kāmasūtra*.

The revolt in favour of using Sanskrit as against Prakrit, headed by Siddhasena Divākara (c 533), was an attempt to raise the literature and thought of the Jains to the high intellectual level attained by those of the Brāhmanas. A Brāhmana by birth, Siddhasena, wrote a well-known text book of logic, and was, on the testimony of Hemachandra, a poet. This revolt naturally met with

considerable opposition from the orthodox *sādhus*, who, moving among the literate, were not alive to the great intellectual upheaval which was bringing about a deeper cultural unity in the country through Sanskrit

Siddhasena Divākara, whose principal literary activities were confined to Gujarāt, was the author of several *prakaranas*, that is, treatises in which the subject is dealt with in a systematic and scientific form. This treatment, as distinguished from the diffused or episodical treatment of events favoured by the canonical works, was introduced by the Brāhmana converts to Jainism.

The work of Siddhasena was carried forward by Haribhadra, a Brāhmana of Chitod and son of the royal *purohita*, who occupies a foremost position in the literature of the 8th century.

Haribhadra wrote many *prakaranas* both in Sanskrit and Prakrit. He wrote a commentary on the *Nyāyapraveśa* of the Buddhist logician, Dignāga. Traditionally he wrote 1,400 *prakaranas* and commentaries on many Jain canonical works. His principal contribution as a scholar was to bring the thought of the Śvetāmbara Jain to the high intellectual level of the Hindū and the Buddhist. Out of the many *dharmakathās* that he wrote such as *Kathākosha*, *Yasādhara-chrita*, *Virāṅgadā-kahā*, only *Samarāchcha-kahā* and *Dhūrtākhyāna*, both composed in Māhārāshtri Prakrit, though with Śaurasenī influence, have come down to us.

In spite of his background and training as a Brāhmana, Haribhadra was attracted to Jainism and was converted by the nun Yākinī. He spent the best part of his life in Gujarāt and the adjoining parts of Rājputāna. But it is clear from his works that he had travelled all over India and come into close contact with the exponents of Buddhist philosophy as taught by Dignāga and Dharmakīrti in Eastern India. His life was inspired by a strong hatred of the Buddhists as also by an ambition to challenge their intellectual eminence. Several anecdotes about his life are found in later works. But the only indisputable

fact which emerges from them is that his nephews and disciples Hamsa and Paramahamsa perished in an attempt to master the doctrines of the Buddhists by stealth. He used the word 'viraha' (bereavement) in the last verse in many of his works, it is stated, to keep alive the memory of this loss. He was also a great proselytiser, attracting to Jainism several learned scholars from other faiths by his personality and learning. He is stated to have got erected eighty-four temples and converted the Prāgvāta (Porvāda) Kshatriyas of Śrīmāla to Jainism. Proud and fierce, he travelled far and wide, supplanting Buddhist influence already on the wane.

Haribhadra, though a man of immense learning and the leader of a movement, was a literary artist in an age when literature could rarely escape from being pedantic or sanctimonious. *Samarāichchakahā* (*Samarādityakathā*) and *Dhūrtākhyāna*, composed in Māhārāshtrī Prakrit, justify his reputation so uniformly emphasized by successive generations of Jain authors. *Samarāichchakahā* is written in a racy, simple, fluent prose interspersed mostly with verses in the Āryā metre, a welcome departure from the highly ornate style which masters, like Bāna and Daṇḍin, affected. It is calculated to capture the imagination of lovers of romance rather than attract the admiration of the learned. The story is full of adventures of certain individuals through a succession of births as men, birds and beasts. No doubt the religious motive is kept alive by the retribution which overtakes the heroes, who represent the cardinal sins, anger, deceit, avarice and untruth. The propagandist also achieves his aim by repeatedly bringing home to the reader the futility of life and the potency of Jainism as the only escape from it.

The story, in brief, is that Gunasena, a prince, when a child, held up to ridicule Agniśarman, the ugly and mis-shapen son of the royal priest. Tired of being the butt of ridicule, Agniśarman became a *sādhu*. After the lapse of some years, Gunasena, who had come to the

throne by then, went to meet his old victim, who had, in the meanwhile, become a great ascetic. The king invited the ascetic to dinner. But under a strict religious vow, the ascetic took food only on one fixed day in a month, and therefore promised to come to the king's palace on the day he broke his fast. On the appointed day, the ascetic came to the palace. The king's men, however, were celebrating the birth of a prince and would not attend to him. Thereupon he went away, and was compelled to continue his fast for another month. The king, when he came to know how he had been treated, in all humility, sought him out and begged his forgiveness. Another invitation followed. The ascetic again came to the palace, only to be turned out a second time for some insignificant reason. Three times the sage received the penitent king's invitation, but on each occasion, was turned out without food or attention. Worked up to a fury, Agniśarman vowed to wreak eternal vengeance on the king through successive lives, and giving up all food, died. He observed his vow and at every rebirth persecuted Gunasena. As a result of a series of adventures, Agniśarman was consumed by his own malice. Gunasena, on the other hand, acquiring higher merit at each birth, attained salvation.

The story is well told, and represents a stage of social *dharmakathā* different from *Tarangalolā*. The author himself calls it *dharmakathā*. Unlike the older work, its religious motives are woven into the main story. Literary effort is less apparent. The emotion of love, intense, fresh and natural, which dominates *Tarangalolā* becomes subordinate to a spirit of adventure and religious zeal. In *Tarangalolā*, *karma* and remembrance of previous life and its consequences serve to motivate the story, in *Samarāchcha*, the story only serves to illustrate those ideas and impress certain moral principles upon the audience. In the former, the characters are human and vital, taken from life, in the latter, they verge on the allegorical.

VII

Dhūrtākhyāna (the story of cheats) contains 480 stanzas divided into 5 *ākhyānas*. It is written in a simple and fluent style suited to the conversational manner in which the cheats carried on their discussions.

Five leaders of cheats, each with his followers, meet in Ujjayinī during the rainy season. Mūladeva, one of the leaders, requests every one to tell the gathering truthfully of his experience. It is agreed that whoever shows the experience to be incredible has to feed the others, but whoever confirms it by scriptural precedents is to be made their chief. Mūladeva then tells his story.

I went to the abode of God Śiva to receive the Gangā on my head, with a gourd and an umbrella in my hand. While passing through a forest an elephant rushed at me, so I leapt into the gourd. The elephant followed me into it where we played hide and seek for six months. Ultimately I escaped through the spout-hole of the gourd. The elephant tried to follow me but the hair of its tail was caught in the spout-hole. I, however, approached the river Gangā, crossed her and reached the abode of the god. I then received the Gangā on my head for six months. If what I tell you is true, confirm it by scriptural testimony. If you say it is a lie, give me a feast.

Kandarika, another chief of the cheats, in confirmation of Mūladeva's story, cites eight incidents from the *Mahābhārata* and the *Purānas*, relating to the imprisonment of Gangā in Śiva's matted hair, birth of Karna from Kuntī's ear, crossing of the ocean by Hanuman with his army, etc.

Then Kandarika told his story.

I was a naughty boy and my parents drove me out of the house. I then attended a fair in honour of a Yaksha. Robbers attacked it. All of us men, women, children and horses went and hid in a cucumber, and continued our merry-making.

A goat swallowed the cucumber A boa swallowed the goat A crane ate the boa and sat on a *vata* tree A king who had camped under the tree, thinking it to be its branch, tied a mad elephant to the crane's leg When the crane drew up its leg, the elephant was lifted up with it The mahout brought the archers who shot down the crane Under the king's orders the crane's stomach was opened Every one of us, thereupon, came out and went to our homes

I myself had this experience If you don't believe it, give us the feast

Elāshāḍha, another chief, confirmed that according to the *Mahābhārata* and the *Purānas* the experience was true, for they referred to the Primeval Egg in which all were accommodated Mārkaṇḍeya also saw a boy at the time of the universal deluge and lived in his stomach for a thousand years The cheat cited several Puranic stories in corroboration and stated that if they were true, Kandarīka's experience was equally true

Elāshāḍha then told his story

Being fond of alchemy I brought the liquid from the golden pond, by which metal could be transmuted into gold. Then I became rich The robbers came and attacked my house I fought single-handed against them They, however, cut my head off and placed it on a *badara* tree, and left with my wealth Men came there in the morning and saw my head eating the *badara* fruits They were convinced that I was alive and joined the head to my body And here I am hale and hearty But if you disbelieve me, give us the feast

Śaśa, another chief, confirmed the truth of this reference by citing the Puranic example of Jamadagni reviving Renukā after her head was cut off by Paraśurāma, of Tilottamā, Hanuman, and Mahāsena who were created or brought to life by joining different limbs

Then Śaśa tells his story

I once went to my field An elephant rushed at me Out of fear, I climbed a sesamum tree The elephant

ran round it, and the sesamum seeds fell on the ground. The seeds were trodden upon by the elephant and so there was flood of sesamum oil. The elephant got stuck in the mud made by the flood, and died of hunger and thirst. I came down the tree, drank ten pots of oil, and ate the seeds. I then made a bag of the elephant's hide, filled it with oil, and brought it with me. I left the bag on a tree, and when I went home asked my son to bring it. He went to the tree, but as he could not find the bag, brought the tree with him. Believe me or give us a feast.

Khandapānā, a woman chief, corroborated the experience by giving similar stories from the *Purāṇas* of the ichor of elephants in Bharata's army drowning armies, of Kumbhakarna drinking hundreds of pots of water and of Agastya drinking the ocean, of Garuda carrying the banyan tree and of Mādhava lifting the Govardhana.

Khandapānā then told the cheats to make her their chief and prepare the feast for this was her story.

Once I was very beautiful. Then I slept on the verandah. The wind dallied with me. Immediately I had a son, who took leave of me and went away.

Mūladeva corroborated her by the instances of Bhīma, born of wind, of Hanuman from Nīlā, of Vyāsa, who walked away as soon as he was born.

Khandapānā resumed. Once I attracted the burning sun and had intercourse with him. A mighty son was born to me, but I remained unhurt. On the third occasion I attracted Agni, by whom I got a brilliant son; but I was not burnt in the least. Once again Indra came to me, preferring me to celestial nymphs, and a son was born to me.

I am an artisan's daughter and several washermen also worked under me. One day the clothes left to dry were blown off by strong wind. I asked the washermen to run away. For fear of the king's wrath, I became a lizard and entered the city. But in the morning I thought I would be caught for the king's dinner and so turned myself into a mango plant. When the washermen were forgiven I restored myself as a woman. In the meantime, the leather straps of my carts had been eaten up by jackals.

and dogs, and my father had to make others of a mouse's tail

I then went from place to place in search of the clothes and my servants Then I came here only to find that you were my servants and that what you wear were my clothes Now believe me, or if you can't, give us a feast

Being outwitted by Khandapānā, all the cheats felt ashamed They, therefore, accepted her as their chief and requested her to feast them all Khandapānā thereupon taking a dead child from the funeral ground with her went abegging to a rich banker's His servants were asked to drive her away When force was used against her she fell down to the ground and cried out that her son had been killed The banker, to escape punishment, bribed her with a ring She removed the dead child, sold the gift, and feasted the cheats

The cheats congratulated her on her resourcefulness and confessed that a woman was wiser than a man

In sharp contrast to the literary tradition of his age Haribhadra refused to convert a good story into an allegory or end it up by making everyone a Jain *sādhū* Khandapānā, the witty, hypocritical cheat, making her colleagues look ridiculous, has a character of her own Her skill in professional beggary has not been improved upon in the last fifteen hundred years

These stories are clever and remind one of Baron Munchausen's extravagant exploits But there is a devastating satire in every word of it Satire in Indian literature is very crude and often mixed But Haribhadra's satire had a vein similar to Swift's or Voltaire's His was the rationalistic approach "I am not partial to Mahāvīra, nor do I bear any ill will against Kapila and others I uphold the message of those whose words appeal to reason" In *Sambodha Prakarana* he holds up even the ways of Jain *sādhūs* to equally devastating satire

The specimens of *dharmakathā* furnished by Haribhadra suggest that a large body of fictional literature composed in Western India at that time has been lost

VIII

A little later (779) Udyotana, one of the disciples of Haribhadra, composed, mainly in Prakrit and partly in Apabhramśa, a *Champū* styled *Kuvalayamālā* in Jābālīpura (Jhālor). It contains valuable historical material, and, among other things, shows that in Gurjaradeśa around Bhīllamāla, Jainism had acquired great influence and the Jain *sādhus* were active in pursuit of literature. It contains valuable linguistic material, and refers to earlier masters of literature like Pādalīpta, Shatparṇaka, Guṇādhyā, Vyāsa, Vālmīki, Bāna, Ravishena, Jādila, Devagupta, Prabhañjana and Haribhadra. A Sanskrit version of this romance was made by Ratnaprabha (c 1400).

Udyotana's *dharmakathā* is still in manuscript. "This story", says the author modestly, "composed without pride of poetic skill, has no literary merit. It has been composed with the object of only telling a *dharmakathā*. Let no one therefore find fault with it"²⁰. It is woven round the old theme of retribution overtaking certain individuals embodying the cardinal sins through a succession of lives. But we miss Haribhadra's raciness of style and freshness of presentation. Literary effort is transparent. The characters are more allegorical, the adventures are less exciting, the outlook on life is more pedantic. We feel narrow influences becoming predominant. The style of Bāna, not his creative art, is the principal inspiration.

Jain *dharmakathā* was losing, or had lost, touch with real life. Siddharshi (906) wrote his *Upamitibhava-prapañchākathā*, a lengthy allegory on the world's worthlessness, in the form of a *dharmakathā*. It includes dreary sermons, an encyclopaedia of knowledge, and a collection of stories, good, bad and indifferent. It is a *reductio ad absurdum* of the didactic and allegorical story. Siddharshi apologetically refers to the necessity of composing in Sanskrit. "Sanskrit and Prakrit equally deserve importance, but men of little learning prefer Sanskrit. If the remedy is at hand, why not please everybody?"

20 cf. Muni Jinavijaya in *Vasanta Rajata Mahotsava Smāraka Grantha*, pp. 270-1.

In Gurjaradeśa of this period several other works were written, among them Śilāchārya's *Chaupanna Mahāpuruṣa Charīyam* in Prakrit, on which Hemachandra modelled his *Trishashti-Śalākā-puruṣa-charita*, *Bhuvanasundarikathā* by Vijayasimha (919), *Kālakāchārya Kathānaka* by Maheśvarasūri, *Bṛhatkathā-kosha* by Harishena (931-2) written at Wadhvān in Gujarāt in which reference is made to Vināyakapāla, the Gurjara Pratihāra emperor of Kanauj, otherwise known as Mahīpāla, *Yaśastilaka-champū* by Somadeva (959). A few decades later, Jain poets, like Dhanapāla (973), the friend of king Muñja of Dhārā and the author of *Tilakamañjarī*, frankly accepted Sanskrit as the language of literature *par excellence*.

IX

This age closed with Rājasekhara who was the representative of its literary traditions and whose influence over the coming centuries was great. He appears to have risen to fame as a poet and scholar in the time of Emperor Mihira Bhoja. He was also the teacher of his son Mahendrapāla who ruled the Pratihāra Empire from 888 to 910 and the poet laureate in the reign of his son, Mahīpāla. The poet had therefore the rare luck of being an eyewitness and chronicler of some of the historic events which changed the destiny of the country between 910 and 940.

The poet has left us many autobiographical details. He was born in the Yāyāvara family and was known to the following generations as Yāyāvara. His was a family of poets. His great-grandfather was well known for his poetic works and his verses were being plagiarised by other poets. Surānanda, a poet famous at the court of Chedi, Tarala and Kavi Rāja also belonged to the same family.²¹

21 cf *Bālarāmāyana*, 1, 13

स मूर्तो यत्रासीद्गुणगण इवाकालजलदः
सुरानन्दः सोऽपि श्रवणपुटपेयेन वचसा ।
न चान्ये गण्यन्ते तरलकविराजप्रभृतयो
महाभागस्तस्मिन्नयमजनि यायावरकुले ॥

Rājaśekhara's father Durduka or Dunika was a prime minister and his mother's name was Śilavatī Rājaśekhara was a Brāhmaṇa, but had married into a Chāhamāna family, and his wife Avantīsundarī was, therefore, a Kshatriya²² She was a lady of great accomplishments, for the poet quotes her opinion thrice in the *Kāvya-mīmāṃsā*²³ and the *Karpūramañjarī* was first acted at her desire He was also styled Kavirāja

The known works of Rājaśekhara are as follows —

- (a) *Bālarāmāyana*, relating the story of Rāma from Sītā's marriage to the death of Rāvana and their return to Ayodhyā after Sītā's fire-ordeal
- (b) *Bālabhārata*, sometimes called *Prachandapāṇḍava*, staged at Mahodaya before Mahīpāla
- (c) *Bhuvanakośa*, to which he alludes in the 17th chapter of the last work
- (d) *Kāvya-mīmāṃsā*
- (e) *Haravilāsa*, referred to by Hemachandra
- (f) *Viddhaśālābhāṇjikā*, staged at the request of Yuvarājadeva of Chedi after the collapse of Kanauj in c 940 The occasion may have been his installation in the joint administration of the government
- (g) *Karpūramañjarī*, produced at the request of his wife, Avantīsundarī

Bālarāmāyana was staged at the court of Mahendrapāla at Kanauj The poet however has taken liberties with the original For instance, Rāvana from the beginning is represented as a rival of Rāma for the hand of Sītā and his love for Sītā is given more prominence than his ferocity

Bālabhārata was staged at Kanauj before a distinguished gathering which included the emperor himself after Mahīpāla completed his great campaign against

22 cf *Karpūramañjarī*, 1, 11

चाहुआणकुलमोलिमालिआ राअसेहरकइन्दगेहिणी ।

भक्तुणो कइमवन्दिसुन्दरी सा पउञ्जयिदुमेअमिच्छइ ॥

23 RKM, pp 20, 46, 57

the Rāshtrakūta emperor Indra III, in about 916 Thus does the poet describe his patron

“In the family of Raghu, there was born the glorious Mahīpāladeva who lowered the heads of the Muralas, who destroyed the Mekalas, who drove out the Kalingas, who conquered the Kulūtas in battle, who destroyed Kuntalas as if with an axe, who forcibly seized the royalty of the Ramathas” -¹

Only two acts of *Bālabhārata* have been recovered so far

Viddhaśālabhāṅjika is a *nāṭikā* in four acts King Chandavarman of Lāta has no sons He therefore tries to pass off his daughter Mrīgāṅkavatī as a son In that guise she is sent to the queen of king Vidyādhara of Kerala The visit leads to a real marriage between the king and the princess *Karpūramañjarī* is a play in Prakrit in four acts, and describes the love affair of king Chanda-pāla with the princess of Kuntala

The poet possesses complete mastery over Sanskrit and Prakrit metres, but as a dramatist he is poor He draws inspiration from Kālidāsa, Bhavabhūti and Śrī Harsha, but never approaches any one of them either in expression, sentiment or beauty

His *Kāvya-mīmāṃsā* is a work of great value and gives glimpses of the life and literature of this period of India's history It was projected as an elaborate treatise on poetics in 18 lengthy sections each consisting of several chapters Only the first part has been so far recovered

The poet gives an exalted status to poetics or Kāvya-śāstra He deals with the origin of poetics and determines the position of poetics in relation to Vedic and post-Vedic literature and treats of the origin of Kāvya-purusha (poetry incarnate, Poetry-King) and his marriage with

24 *Bālabhārata*, I, 7

नमितमुरलमौलिः पाकलो मेकलाना
रणकलितकलिङ्गः केलितट् केरलेन्दो ।
अजनि जितकुलूतः कुन्तलाना कुठारो
हठहृतरमठश्री. श्रीमहीपालदेव ॥

Sāhityavidyā, the literary art The origin of Kāvya-purusha is thus described —

“The goddess of learning was practising penance on the Himālayas with the desire of having a son. Pleased with her penance, Brahmā gave her a son, afterwards the Kāvya-purusha. It was from him that metrical speech first originated. Word and meaning make up his body, the different languages his limbs. Sentiment is his soul, and figures of speech are his ornaments. Once upon a time, while Sarasvatī was going to the celestial assembly as a judge, the Kāvya-purusha persisted in following her. In order to prevent him, Bhavānī created Sāhityavidyā-vadhū as his bride and asked her to follow him. The bride had to adopt various sorts of dress and dramatic devices to win him. The Kāvya-purusha, at the end of the journey, was won over. The pair were then married in Vatsagulma by the Gandharva marriage. The different kinds of dress and dramatic modes adopted by Sāhityavidyā-vadhū in different countries are imitated by the people of those parts”²⁵

In the work the poet deals with the rules to be observed by poets and gives the following directions

A poet should not read his composition to others in its incomplete form, he should not be vain if his composition is good, before publishing it he should seek the opinion of his betters, he should avoid quarrelling with impostors, he should prepare several transcripts of his works²⁶ Rājaśekhara ends the work by treating of the various ways which are injurious to the reputation of a poet

According to Rājaśekhara a poet should always be equipped with a box, a board with a chalk to write thereon, leaves of the *tāla* or the bark of the *bhūrja* tree for preparing books, as also pen and inkpot. He should also have the leaves of the *tāla* tree with iron nails²⁷ Evidently books were being written at the time in the southern style by incising the leaves of the *tāla* tree, and in the

25 RKM. Intr, p XXXVI, pp 5-10

26 *op cit*, p 52f नार्द्धकृत पठेत् । न च स्वकृति बहु मन्येत ।...

. न च दृप्येत् । परैश्च परीक्षयेत् । सिद्ध च प्रबन्धमनेकादर्शगत कुर्यात् ।

27 *op cit* p 50 तस्य सम्पुटिका सफलकखटिका, समुद्रक., सलेखनीकमयी—
भाजनानि ताडिपत्राणि भूर्जत्वचो वा, सलोहकण्टकानि तालदलानि, सुसम्मृष्टा
भित्तय, सततसन्निहिता स्यु ।

northern by writing with ink on the bark of the *bhūrja* tree

A *kavirāja* was expected to be proficient in various languages and not merely Sanskrit. A good poet, says Rājaśekhara, should pay attention to all the languages according to his ability, taste and curiosity,²⁸ for there is a distinctive beauty in each

A large number of books from which Rājaśekhara has taken quotations have remained unrecovered so far. Rājaśekhara was a much travelled poet,²⁹ and has some very interesting remarks to make about the manner of speech of the people. The Magadhas and those living to the east of Banaras spoke Sanskrit well but Prakrit badly.³⁰ A Gauḍa could not speak Prakrit properly, he should, therefore, either give up the attempt or improve his Prakrit.³¹ The Karnātakas recited poetry proudly with a twang at the end of each sentence irrespective of sentiment, style or quality.³² The Dravidas recited prose

28 *op cit*, p 48 सस्कृतवत्सर्वास्वपि भाषासु यथासामर्थ्यं यथारुचि यथाकौतुकं चावहितं स्यात् ।

29 *RKM*, p 51

गौडाद्याः सस्कृतस्थाः परिचितरुचयः प्राकृते लाटदेश्याः
सापभ्रंशप्रयोगाः सकलमरुभुषणवक्त्रभादानकाश्च ।
आवन्त्याः पारियात्राः सह दशपुरजैर्भूतभाषा भजन्ते
यो मध्ये मध्यदेश निवसति स कवि सर्वभाषानिष्पन्नः ॥

30 *op cit*, p 33

पठन्ति सस्कृतं सुष्ठु कुण्ठा प्राकृतवाचि ते ।
वाणार(राण)सीतः पूर्वेण ये केचिन्मगधादयः ॥

31 *op cit*, pp 33-4

गौडस्त्यजतु वा गाथामन्या वाऽस्तु सरस्वती ॥
नातिस्पष्टो न चाश्लिष्टो न रूक्षो नातिकोमलः ।
न मन्द्रो नातितारश्च पाठी (ठो) गौडेषु वाडवः ॥

32 *op cit*, p 34

रसः कोऽप्यस्तु काव्यस्तु रीतिः कोऽप्यस्तु वा गुणः ।
सर्वं सर्वकर्णाटिष्टिकारोत्तरपाठिनः ॥

and poetry both in a musical way³³ The Lātas hated Sanskrit but spoke elegant Prakrit in a beautiful way³⁴ The people of Saurāshtra and Travana spoke Sanskrit but mixed it with Apabhramśa to add beauty to their speech³⁵ Kashmirians were good poets but their recital sounded like a mouthful of guḍūchī³⁶ The poets of the North were cultured and recited with a nasal twang³⁷ But the Pañchāla poets were the best, their voice corresponded to their style, the arrangement of their words was perfect, their compositions were scientific³⁸ The Pāñchālas are described as the ornaments of Āryāvarta, the most cultured region The two foci of the land were Kanauj and Banaras Its people liked elegant and new literary works The compositions of its poets were very well constructed³⁹ Their recitation was sweet as

33 *op cit.*, p 34

गद्ये पद्येऽथवा मिश्रे काव्ये काव्यमना अपि ।
गेयगर्भे स्थितः पाठे सर्वोऽपि द्रविडः कविः ॥

34 *op cit.*, p 34

पठन्ति लटभ लाटाः प्राकृत सस्कृतद्विषः ।
जिह्वया ललितोल्लापलब्धसौन्दर्यमुद्रया ॥

35 *op cit.*, p 34

सुराष्ट्रत्रवणाद्या ये पठन्त्यपितसौष्ठवम् ।
अपभ्रंशावदंशानि ते संस्कृतवचांस्यपि ॥

36 *Ibid*

शारदायाः प्रसादेन काश्मीरः सुकविर्जनः ।
कर्णे गुडूचीगण्डूषस्तेषां पाठक्रमः किमु ! ॥

37 *Ibid*

ततः पुरस्तात्कव्यो ये भवन्त्युत्तरापथे ।
ते महत्यपि सस्कारे सानुनासिकपाठिनः ॥

38 *Ibid*

मार्गानुगेन निनदेन निधिर्गृणाना
सम्पूर्णवर्णरचनो यतिभिर्विभक्तः ।
पाञ्चालमण्डलभुजा सुभगः कवीना
श्रोत्रे मधुः क्षरति किञ्चन काव्यपाठः ॥

39 *Bālarāmāyana*, Act X अयमसावितो विश्वम्भराशिरःशेखर इव लाटः ।

यद्योनिः किल सस्कृतस्य सुदृशा जिह्वासु यन्मोदते
यत्र श्रोत्रपथावतारिणि कटुर्भाषाक्षराणां रसः ।

honey As the poet testifies, Mahodaya or Kanauj was the literary metropolis of India, the centre from where radiated power, fashion and culture

Rājasekhara had a partiality for Lātadeśa Karpūra-mañjarī, the heroine of the play, is the daughter of the king of Lātadeśa *Viddhaśālabhañjikā* also refers to the king of the same country In the *Bālarāmāyana* (Act X, 48-49) it is described as the crest of the earth The elegance of speech and beauty of its ladies are dilated upon by him in his *Kāvya*s

Poets of Lāta appear to possess distinctive literary traits A kind of style, favoured by the authors of Lāta, had acquired the name of Lātī⁴⁰ Rājasekhara represents the people of Lāta as preferring Prakrit and hating Sanskrit Humour was then another peculiarity of Lātī⁴¹

The poet's works also reflect the high state of education in the country in his time Women did not lag

Continued from page 53

गद्य चूर्णपदं पद रतिपतेस्तत्प्राकृत यद्वच-
स्ताल्लाटाल्ललिताङ्गि पश्य नुदती दृष्टेर्निमेषव्रतम् ॥४८॥

किञ्च-लक्षीकर्तुं प्रवृत्तोऽपि लाटीलङ्घवीक्षितः ।

लक्षीभवति कन्दर्प. स्वेषामेवात्र पत्रिणाम् ॥४९॥

40 cf Rudrata, *Kāvyaśālikā* (KM, 2) II 4-5

पाञ्चाली लाटीया गौडीया चेति नामतोऽभिहिता ।

लघुमध्यायतद्विरचनसमासभेदादिमास्तत्र ॥ ४॥

द्वित्रिपदा पाञ्चाली लाटीया पञ्च सप्त वायावत् ।

शब्दा समासवन्तो भवति यथाशक्ति गौडीया ॥ ५ ॥

Rudrata (c 800-850) was the first to enumerate *Lātīyā Riti*. It is indeed curious that Rājasekhara, who came after Rudrata and was conversant with his view, did not accept *Lātīyā Riti*. Probably he did not consider it to be different from *Pāñchālī*, and hence did not see any necessity of acknowledging a separate *Riti* beyond *Pāñchālī* (cf RKM, pp 147 & 171)

41 cf Simhaddevagani's commentary on the *Vāgbhatālamkāra* (KM, 48), p 68

लाटी हास्यरसे प्रयोगनिपुणं रीतिं प्रबन्धे कृता

पाञ्चाली कृष्णाभयानकरसे शान्ते रसे मागधी ।

गौडी वीररसे च रौद्रजरसे वत्सोमदेशोद्भवा

बीभत्साद्भुतयोर्विदग्धविषया शृङ्गारभूते रसे ॥

behind men in point of education. Evidently there were poetesses too in Kanauj. "Culture is connected with the soul and not with the sex", says the poet⁴². The poet had met princesses and poetesses, daughters of prime ministers, courtesans, and wives of court jesters who were well versed in sciences.

The whole country, therefore, in this period had a unity of culture. Apabhramśa, Prakrit and languages closely allied to Sanskrit were being understood by the people. Sanskrit was the language of the cultured, spoken and understood among the educated throughout the country, but was most prevalent to the east of Banaras.

X

In 550 Īśānavarmā made Kanauj the capital. Its Pratihāra masters were styled Mahārājādhirājas of Āryāvarta. Their power broke in 940. In 950 the Pratihāra ruler of Kanauj was still recognised as the titular emperor of the world (*Raghukula-bhūchakravartin*). His descendant Rājyapāla was so accepted right till 1018 when Mahmūd of Ghaznī sacked Kanauj, and made a vassal of this last of the Gurjaraśvaras. Vidyādhara Chandella (1019-1022) rose against this imbecile relic of imperial greatness, and killed Rājyapāla, who was a puppet of the foreign conqueror. Thus ended the glory of Kanauj.

The rise of Kanauj represents a distinct phase in the history of India. About 500, the Gupta empire broke into two as a result of the pressure of foreign inroads from the North-West, and India from Peshāwar to the Narmadā became a melting pot. From out of this welter emerged the military power of Kanauj with its main function of resisting foreign inroads, and evolving order out of chaos. It had another function too. By 500 the Deccan asserted itself on the all India scene as a distinct military power, and a few decades later, came into conflict with

42 RKM, p. 53

संस्कारो ह्यात्मनि समवेति, न स्त्रेण पौरुषं वा विभागमपेक्षते ।

Kanauj which also saved the North from being occupied. For all the time, the region of modern Gujarāt became the battle-ground of various powers, and, perhaps by that reason among others, tended to acquire for its people a character distinct from the warring regions of the North and South.

As a result of this situation, life in the Rājasthān belt was thrown out of the traditional groove *Chāturvarṇya* as an organisation had to bear the strain of absorbing the new comer. The martial races became diluted with foreign elements, the Brāhmanas, who had been very largely endowed during Gupta times, and had been the guardians of religion, culture and literature, became a distinct caste of "gods on earth" (*bhūdeva*), interested mainly in maintaining the purity of their heritage. This had its reaction in literature, as is proved by the testimony of Rājaśekhara.

Sanskrit authors wrote for the learned only, not for all, their inspiration came from old masters like Vyāsa and Kālidāsa, not from life. Naturally literature became learned in content, artificial in character, and traditional in outlook. Living literature was found only in Prakrit and Apabhramśa, but much of it, which did not partake of a learned character, disappeared. Rare specimens like *Dhūrtākhyāna* survived because they happened to be composed by learned men who could not otherwise be ignored. South of the Narmadā, Sanskrit was only the language of the learned. Though its literature lost in vigour and beauty, it became a cementing bond in the whole country. On the other hand, the narrowing scope of Sanskrit and even Prakrit and Apabhramśa literature prepared the way for the spoken dialect of the people to develop into a literary speech.

CHAPTER III

LITERATURE UNDER THE PARAMĀRAS

A D 940-1050

Break-up of the empire of Gurjaradesa (940)—Mūlarāja Chālukya's occupation of Sārasvata Mandala (942)—Siyaka II, Paramāra ruler of Gujarāt (940-974)—Muñja (974-997)—His poetic skill—His literary associates—Padmagupta—Dhananjaya—Dhanapāla—*Tilakamañjarī*—Bhoja the Magnificent (1010-1050)—Resurrection of the empire of Gurjaradesa—His character and achievements—Pioneer of polymathic tradition—His works—*Sarasvatī-Kanthābharana* — *Śrīṅgāraprakāśa* — *Śrīṅgāramañjarī* — As a philosopher

WHEN the empire of Gurjaradeśa fell about 940 the feudatories of Śākambharī (Ajmer) and Medapāta (Mewār) became practically independent Mārwar possibly passed into the hands of some Rāshtrakūta feudatory Mūlarāja, the son of Rājī the Chālukya, and a descendant of the Pratihāra emperor of Kanauj in the daughter's line, left Mārwar and in 942 established himself at Anahilavāḍa Pattana in the Sārasvata Mandala. The traditional belief that Mūlarāja was the founder of the kingdom of Gujarāt is erroneous. During his time the best part of it was in the hands of the powerful Paramāra kings Siyaka II of the Paramāra family, the viceroy and feudatory in chief of the Rāshtrakūta emperor who defeated emperor Mahipāla, ruled over Anarta, south of Sarasvatī, Khetaka Mandala, West Mālwa and Lāta.

The Paramāras came from Ābu and originally were the feudatories of Pratihāra Gurjara emperors. They appear to have changed their allegiance and become the feudatories of the Rāshtrakūta emperors of Mānyakheta (now Mālkhed in Hyderābād, Deccan). In c 948 Siyaka II, the Paramāra king, ruled over a kingdom which comprised Saurāshtra, North Gujarāt, parts of South Gujarāt and parts of Mālwa¹. He grew very powerful and inflicted a defeat on the Chālukya of Rattapādi, feuda-

1 cf Harsola Grant, *EI*, XIX, p 236

tory of his suzerain About 960 he added Ujjayinī and the region around it to his dominion When the Rāshtrakūta emperor, Kṛishna III, died in 968 Sīyaka marched on Mānyakheta In 974 he captured and sacked the city Flushed with victory the conqueror returned to Dhārā which he made his capital He died soon after (about 974) Under this rising Paramāra power the centre of gravity of the literary tradition shifted from Kanauj to Ujjayinī

I

In 974 Sīyaka's son, Muñja, succeeded to the throne of Dhārā which had the bulk of Gujarāt under its sway Muñja enlarged his dominions so as to include not only modern Gujarāt but also Chedi, Mālwā, Mewār, Mār-wār, the Ābu region, Jhālor and Lāta He built his power on the fabric of the old Gurjaradeśa Muñja was not merely a conqueror, a gay lover and a great builder, but a poet and a patron of learning He cultivated eloquence, high poetry and logic Hemachandra refers to five *dūhās* in Apabhramśa composed by him ²

He knew the Śāstras well ³ He wrote poetry in Sanskrit also His verses are quoted in works on poetics ⁴ Dhanika, in his commentary on the *Daśarūpa*, twice quotes a verse from Vākpatirāja Muñja ⁵

2 These are included in Appendix I

3 cf *EI*, pp 233ff (St 13)

वक्तृत्वोच्चकवित्वतर्ककलनप्रज्ञावशास्त्रागम ।

4 Stanzas attributed to Muñja, Utpalarāja and Vākpatirāja in anthologies and works on poetics, besides those cited in the subsequent footnotes, have been collected together in Appendix I

5 *Daśarūpa* (Edited by Fitz-Edward Hall, Calcutta, 1865), pp 184 186

(१) यथा श्रीवक्त्रतिराजदेवस्य
प्रणयकुपिता दृष्ट्वा देवी ससम्भ्रमविस्मितम्
त्रिभुवनगुहर्भोत्या सद्य प्रणामपरोऽभवत् ।
नमितशिरसो गङ्गालोके तया चरणाहता—
ववतु भवतस्त्र्यक्षस्यैतद् विलक्षमवस्थितम् ॥ (पृ १८४)

(२) यथा श्रीमुञ्जस्य
प्रणयकुपिता दृष्ट्वा (पृ १८६)

The Kāshmiri poet Kshemendra quotes different stanzas composed by Utpalarāja, which was another name of Muñja⁶

Muñja died in about 997 Padmagupta writes of him as follows —

We worship Lord Vākpati
For he is the root
From which that heavenly creeper springs,
Which we call Sarasvatī
Only by his grace
Do we tread the path,
Which mighty poets trod before us

And thus does the poet bid his master farewell —

Thou, source of joy voluptuous
The crest jewel of kings,
Home of nectar which is gentility
Ocean of wit, Oh Lord
Thou might of Ujjayinī!

6 *Auchityavichāracharchā* of Kshemendra (KM, No 1 3rd Ed., 1929), st 16, p 131, *Kavikanthābharana* of Kshemendra (KM, No 4, 3rd Ed., 1937), II 1, p 152, *Sarittatilaka* of Kshemendra (KM, No 2 2nd Ed., 1932) II 6, 37,

(१) न तु यथा श्रीमदुत्पलराजस्य

अहौ वा हारे वा बलवति रिपौ वा सुहृदि वा

मणौ वा लोष्टे वा कुसुमशयने वा दृष्टि वा ।

तूणे वा स्त्रेणे वा मम समदृशो यान्तु दिवसा

क्वचित्पुण्यारण्ये शिवशिवशिवेति प्रलपत ॥ औचित्य १६

(२) यथा च श्रीमदुत्पलराजदेवस्य

मात्सर्यतीव्रतिमिरावृतदृष्टयो ये

ते कस्य नाम न खला व्यथयन्ति चेत ।

मन्ये विमुच्य गलकन्दलमिन्दुमौले—

येषा सदा वचसि वल्गति कालकूट ॥ कवि २-१

(३) यथा श्रीमदुत्पलराजस्य

हृताञ्जनश्यामश्चस्तवेते स्थूलाः किमित्यश्रुकणा. पतन्ति ।

भृङ्गा इव व्यायतपङ्क्तयो ये तनीयसीं रोमलतां श्रयन्ति ॥ सुवृत्त २-६

7 NSC, I 7

सरस्वतीकल्पलतैककन्द चन्दामहे वाक्पतिराजदेवम् ।

यस्य प्रसादाद्व्यमप्यनन्यकवीन्द्रचीर्णे पथि सञ्चराम ॥

Thou wert the god of love for maidens fair,
 Oh, brother unto the righteous,
 Inspirer of noble arts—
 Where art thou?
 Wherever thou art, wait
 I am coming⁸

On his death the poet truly sang —

He is dead
 Lakshmī will return to Govinda,
 Virasī will fly back to the god of war,
 But now that Muñja is no more,
 Sarasvatī alone
 Will have none to befriend her⁹

Descended from the Paramāras of Ābu, Muñja and his father laid the foundation of almost an empire of which Gujarāt formed the core. He can therefore be claimed both by Gujarāt and Mālhwā as their own, for there was no well marked distinction between them then. Modern Gujarāt had not been born, nor modern Mālhwā. From Ujjayinī flowed the inspiration of culture which enriched the whole region.

Among the literary associates of Muñja were Padmagupta or Parimala, the author of the *Navasāhasāṅkacharita*, an epic on Muñja's father Sindhurāja, Dhanañjaya, the author of *Daśarūpaka* (a treatise on dramaturgy), and his brother Dhanika, who wrote a commentary on the last named work, styled *Daśarūpāvaloka* and *Kāvya-nirnaya*, Halāyudha who wrote a commentary on Pingala's work on metrics, Dhanapāla, the author of *Pāṇyalachchhā* and *Tilakamañjarī*, and his brother Śobhana, and Amīta-

8 cf Peterson, *JBBRAS*, XVI, p 174

हा शृङ्गारतरङ्गिणीकुलगिरे हा राजचूडामणे
 हा सौजन्यसुधानिधान हह हा वैदग्ध्यकुग्धोदधे ।
 हा देवोज्जयिनीभुजङ्ग युवतीप्रत्यक्षकन्दर्पे हा
 हा सद्बान्धव हा कलामृतकर क्वासि प्रतीक्षस्व न ॥

9 PC, p 25

लक्ष्मीर्यास्यति गोविन्दे वीरश्रीर्वीरवेश्मनि ।
 गते मुञ्जे यशःपुञ्जे निरालम्बा सरस्वती ॥

gati, the author of *Subhāshitaratnasamdoha* Ujjayinī attracted the best talents from Kanauj, Kashi and other centres of learning Muñja, therefore, was the great upholder of the imperial tradition of Gurjaradeśa after Mahīpāla He was also a great builder When he first made Dhārā his capital, he beautified it with many reservoirs, one of which is still called Muñjasāgara He also built *ghāts* and temples at Ujjayinī, at Maheshwar on the Narmadā, at Omkār Māndhātā and Dharampur A town in Gujarāt was also founded by him and was known as Muñjapura

Muñja bore the title of *Parameśvara*, emperor, while Mūlarāja whom he vanquished was only a feudatory king, *Mahārājādhirāja* But he was a great general and a cautious and far-sighted statesman He overcame Bārappa, the viceroy of the Chālukyas of the South in Lāta, destroyed the formidable Grāharipu of Saurāshtra and subdued Lākhā Phulānī of Kachchha

II

Dhanapāla was a resident of Ujjayinī and later in life became a convert to Jainism He settled down in Dhārā and Muñja gave him the title of Saraswatī In 976 he composed a small treatise on Prakrit lexicography called *Pāyalachchhīnāmamālā* His *Tīlakamañjarī* was composed as a *Gadyakāvya* to entertain emperor Bhoja It is an elaborate prose romance in imitation of *Kādambarī* His other works, which are in Prakrit, are mostly Jain religious poems

In 996 Muñja was put to death by Tailappa, the Chālukya king of Mānyakheta, and was possibly succeeded by his brother Sindhurāja

III

Muñja's nephew Bhoja came to the throne of Dhārā Bhoja the Magnificent was one of the greatest rulers in history A great conqueror, a great poet and polymath, a great patron of art and literature and a philosopher, his

proverbial generosity made his name for ever a synonym for noble and royal munificence

That Gujarāt was within the empire of Bhoja appears to be incontrovertible. Between 997 and 1050 Mūlarāja's son Chāmunda (997-1010) and his grandson Bhīma (1022-1064) were rulers of inferior grade whose realm only extended to Sārasvata Mandala (Sāchor) and possibly a part of Kachchha, though they called themselves Lords of Gurjara, a title inherited by them from the Pratihāra Gurjareśvaras. Modern Gujarāt was not styled Gujarāt at the time. In 1019 Bhoja conquered Konkan, practically from Mahī to Goa. In 1020 he is found in possession of a region round Baroda and styled *Parameśvara Paramabhattachāraka*, emperor¹⁰. His empire included the Kheda district of Gujarāt. If my identification of Bhoja with the Paramadeva referred to in *Zainul Akhbār* (1047-52), the first work recording Mahmūd's conquest of Somanātha, is correct it was Bhoja's army which in 1024 frightened Mahmūd Ghaznī away from Saurāshtra, which he had raided to destroy the temple of Somanātha.¹¹ Bhīmadeva, the Chālukya king of Anahila-vāḍa, during the emperor's life never called himself an independent king but only a *Mahārājādhirāja*, a title used for a feudatory, but in 1075 we find his son Karna calling himself *Paramabhattachāraka* for the first time,¹² though *Parameśvara* is dropped. The temple of Somanātha, when Mahmūd retreated, was claimed to have been reconstructed both by Bhoja and Bhīma. Up to 1047 the Baroda region was within his empire and so was the Nāsik district. Practically the whole of Gujarāt therefore was within the empire right up to 1043. The bulk of it he inherited from his grand-father through his uncle. During his time, therefore, he was the ruler of Gujarāt.

As a conqueror Bhoja came to the throne in about 1010. By 1019 Ānarta, Lāta and Konkana had been occupied and the Chālukya Jayasīma of Kalyānī was

10 cf. Banswara Grant, *El*, IX, p. 182

11 cf. Munshi, *GG*, II, p. 139f

12 *GG*, II, p. 156.

vanquished On account of the retreat of Mahmūd of Ghaznī, he had no opportunity to cross swords with him, but there is no doubt that he was sufficiently powerful to force the ruler of Ghaznī to retreat In 1035 Bhoja conquered Tripurī, the capital of Chedi In 1036 he conquered Kanauj and the line of the Gurjara-Pratihāras was extinguished In 1042 he marched on Kalyānī and defeated and slew Jayasīmha II in battle In 1043, it appears that he led a confederacy which recovered Jhānsī, Thāneshwar and other places from the viceroy of Ghaznī His imperial sway therefore extended from Chamba and Thāneshwar in the north to Krishnā and the Tungabhadra in the south, and from Dwārakā to Kanauj Among his feudatories were not only the kings of Chamba, Dubkund, Śākambharī, Naddūla, Medapāta, Pātan with its vassals of Kachchha and Saurāshtra, Lāta and Konkana, but also Gāngeya and his son Karna of Chedi, Chālukya Jayasīmha II and his son Someśvara of Kalyānī He was also the master of imperial Kanauj, no longer the seat of an empire In this wise the old Gurjaradesa was for the time being brought together The only other emperor in the country who could rival Bhoja, Rājarāja, the Chola of Tanjore, held the territory south of the Krishnā and the Tungabhadra, the east coast districts, the whole of Orissa and parts of Bengal and Assam in vassalage, and was on terms of cordial friendship with him Above all Bhoja helped in driving out the Mlechchhas from the land

He was the greatest builder of ancient India A great devotee of Lord Śiva, he built the temples dedicated to Kcdāreśvara, Rāmeśvara, Somanātha, Sundira, Kāla, Anala and Rudra ¹³ The Bhojaśālā at Dhārā was a university, a particular feature of which was the Sarasvatī-Sadana or Bhāratī Bhavana, "a meeting place of great poets, of scho-

13 Udaipur Prasasti (EI, I, pp 233-238), st, 20

केदाररामेश्वरसोमनाथसुडीरकालानलरुद्रसत्क. ।

सुराश्रयैर्वाप्य च यः समन्ताद्यथार्थसंज्ञा जगतीं चकार ॥

lars proficient in the three Vedas, of critics and accomplished men possessing great appreciation and taste and coming from all quarters”¹⁴ Many of the monumental buildings in Dhārā, the fortress of Māndu, the *ghāts* and temples of Ujjayinī, were all built by him. He built the Bhojasāgara with an area of 350 sq miles, perhaps the most magnificent fresh-water lake in the world.¹⁵ Modern Bhopāl is the remnant of the great city which Bhoja built on its bank.

Bhoja was above all a literary man and a patron of learning. Kingship and conquest to him were a subsidiary activity, an instrument wherewith to serve the goddess Sarasvatī. His fame was not only contemporary, it has endured for the last nine hundred years. He has been the universal standard for comparing any one who is liberal towards literature. The *Rājataranginī* says “He (Kṣhīti-pati) and king Bhoja, famous for their great liberality, were at the same moment both poets themselves and friends of poets”¹⁶ Mammata in his *Kāvya prakāśa* remarks “It is the play of Bhoja in which there are such riches in the mansions of the learned”¹⁷ Two hundred years later when Vastupāla had to be compared to a generous patron of learning, Bhoja was referred to in these terms “King Bhoja having gone to the world of the Sun, and King Muñja having secured the brilliant possessions of the heavens, Vastupāla alone is left to dry the tears of

14 Hultzsch, “Pārijātamañjarī-nāṭikā by Madana”, *EI*, VIII, pp 96-122
p 101 सा (शा) रदादेव्या सञ्चनि सकल दिगतरोपागतानेकत्रैविद्य-

सहृदयकलाकोविदरसिकमुकधिसकुले

15 *IA*, XVIII, p 350

16 *RT*, VII, 259

स च भोजनरेन्द्रश्च दानोत्कर्षेण विश्रुतौ ।

सूरी तस्मिन्क्षणे तुल्य द्वावास्ता कविवान्धवौ ॥

17 *Kāvya prakāśa*, X 114

मुक्ता केलिविसूत्रहारगलिता समार्जनीभिर्हृता
प्रातः प्राङ्गणसीम्नि मन्थरचलद्वालाङ्घ्रिलाक्षारणा ।
दूराद्वाडिमबीजशङ्खितधियः कर्षन्ति केलीशुका
यद्विद्वद्भूषणेषु भोजनृपतेस्तत्यागलीलायितम् ॥

beggars”¹⁸ That the high praise given to Bhoja was not mere rhetoric is clear from the universal testimony of succeeding ages

Bhoja himself was a versatile literary man, a polymath and a pioneer of the literary tradition of polymaths like Kshemendra of Kāshmir and Hemachandra of Gujarāt. His mastery over Sanskrit and Prakrit was unchallenged. He also invented metres. The age of creative art closed with Bhavabhūti, of scholarship with Rājaśekhara. The age of compilers and commentators began with this encyclopaedic author. Whether all the works attributed to him were his own compositions, or prepared under his supervision by others, is uncertain. But he is mentioned as a writer on the *Dharmaśāstras* by Daśabala, a Buddhist writer, by Śūlapāni in the *Prāyaścittaviveka* and by Allādanātha, Raghunandana and Viṇāneśvara. On medical subjects, he is quoted in the *Bhāvaprakāśa*, and in Mādhava’s *Rugvimschaya*, on astronomy, by Keśavarka. As a grammarian and lexicographer he is mentioned by Kshīrasvāmi, Sāyana and Mahīpa, and is praised as a poet by Chhittapa, Diveśvara, Vināyaka, Śankara Sarasvatī and Sarasvatī-Kutumbaduhitri.¹⁹

Unlike Hemachandra, he left no band of devoted pupils behind him who thought it their duty to hand down their master’s works almost word perfect, but a study of all the works attributed to Bhoja is sure to throw light on the unity of authorship of at least some of the works showing the extraordinary sweep and richness of the royal author. Eighty-four works are attributed to Bhoja, but the available works may be classified thus²⁰

- | | | |
|----|--------------|----------------------------------|
| I | Anthology | (1) <i>Subhāshutaprabandha</i> |
| II | Architecture | (2) <i>Samarānganasūtradhāra</i> |

18 *Revised Lists of Antiquarian Remains in the Bombay Presidency*, By J Burgess and H Cousens, Bombay, 1897, pp 328-9, st 4

भो (भि) त्वा भानु भोजराजे प्रयाते श्रीमुजेपि स्वर्गसाम्राज्यभाजि ।

एक सप्रत्ययिना वस्तुपालस्तिष्ठत्यश्रुस्पदनिष्कदनाय ॥

19 cf Aufrecht, CC, I, p 418, II, p 95, III, p 90, EI, I, p 231f, VIII, pp 241-60

20 cf Krishnamachariar, HCSL, pp 500-4, 750f, 845, Kane, KHDS, I, p 719, P T S Ayyangar, *Bhoja Raja*, (Madras, 1931), p 69 f, Sastri, IA, I, p 840, etc

- III Astronomy and Astrology (3) *Ādityapratāpasiddhānta*, (4) *Rājamārtanda*, (5) *Rājamṛgāṅka* (*karana*), (6) *Vidvajanavallabha* (*prasnañāna*)
- IV Dharmasāstra, Rājadharma and Polity (7) *Bhujabala* (*nibandha*), (8) *Bhūpālapaddhati*, (9) *Bhūpālasamuchchaya* (or *Kṛtyasamuchchaya*), (10) *Chānakyanīti* (or *Dandanīti*) (11) *Chārucharyā*, (12) *Pūrtamārtanda*, (13) *Rājamārtanda*, (14) *Rājanīti*, (15) *Vyavahārasamuchchaya*, (16) *Yuktikalpataru*
- V Grammar (17) *Śabdānusāsana*
- VI Lexicography (18) *Nāmamālikā*
- VII Medicine (19) *Āyurvedasarvasva*, (20) *Rājamārtanda* (or *Yogasārasamgraha*), (21) *Rājamṛgāṅka*, (22) *Sālihotra*, (23) *Viśrāntavidyāvmoda*
- VIII Music (24) *Samgītaprakāśa*
- IX Philosophy (25) *Rājamārtanda* (Comm on Patañjali's *Yogasūtra*), (26) *Rājamārtanda* (*Vedānta*), (27) *Siddhāntasamgraha*, (28) *Siddhāntasārapaddhati*, (29) *Svatattvaṛatnakalikā*, (30) *Tattvaparakāśa* (or *Śvatattvaparakāśikā*)
- X Prakrit Poems (31-32) *Kūrmasataka*, 2 vols
- XI Rhetoric (33) *Sarasvatīkanthābharana*, (34) *Śṛṅgāraprakāśa*
- XII Sanskrit Poetry and Prose (35) *Champū Rāmāyana*, (36) *Mahākālīvijaya*, (37) *Śṛṅgāramañjarī*, (38) *Vidyāvmoda*

In the field of poetics, Bhoja wrote his *Sarasvatīkanthābharana*, and later elaborated on the whole field including dramaturgy in the *Śṛṅgāraprakāśa*, the longest known work of the kind in Sanskrit. Bhoja considered *Śṛṅgāra* (the erotic) as the principal and essential *rasa* (sentiment). He also composed the *Śṛṅgāramañjarī*, a unique prose work, in which a hetaera instructs her daughter in twelve kinds of *Rāgas* or attitudes towards her clients. The author's great work on architecture, the *Samarāṅganasūtradhāra*, treats of the art of constructing cities, palaces and mansions. *Yuktikalpataru* is a treatise on the *Dharmaśāstra*. All these works are treated as authoritative and quoted by later writers.

Among the literary men who flourished at his court were Dhanapāla, one Kālidāsa (not the great one but a namesake), to whom are attributed the *Nalodaya* and *Champū Rāmāyana*, Uvata (c 1100) a native of Vadnagar in Gujarāt who wrote his *Mantrabhāṣya* on *Vājasaneyi Samhitā* of Yajurveda and his commentary on *Prātisākhya*

at Ujjayinī, and perhaps Viṣṇāneśvara, the author of the famous law-text *Mitāksharā*

Merutunga gives a number of anecdotes which illuminate the qualities of this extraordinary man. Above and beyond the conquests he achieved, apart from the rich magnificence with which he adorned shrines, rivers and homes of learning, appears the sage comparable only to the royal sages Janaka Videhī and Marcus Aurelius. To him virtuous deeds were the only justification for life. As he got up every day he asked himself, "What good can I do today?" One of his sayings indicates the spirit of a *Karmayogin*

"The sun will set in the western sky and take away with him part of life,

Men ask me daily, 'What's the news today?' Are you quite hale and glad and well?"

How can we keep the body's health?

Is not our life departing day by day?

Perform today the duty of tomorrow, the afternoon's before the noon,
For death won't wait to see if you have done the duty of the day or no

Is death now dead? Is old now decrepit?

Are Life's disasters now destroyed?

Is the rush of illness quite arrested,
that all these men are lost in mirth?"²¹

Power, glory and wealth which came to him plentifully had no permanent value for him. In one of his verses he says —

'If I have not given my wealth to suppliants before the bright Sun sets in the west,

21 *Bhoja Raja*, p. 60, PC, p. 46

उत्थायोत्थाय बोद्धव्यं किमद्य सुकृतं कृतम् ।

आयुषं खण्डमादाय रविरस्तं प्रयास्यति ॥ १ ॥

लोकं पृच्छसि मे वार्तां शरीरे कुशलं तव ।

कुतः कुशलमस्माकमायुर्याति दिने दिने ॥ २ ॥

इव कार्यमद्य कुर्वीत पूर्वार्हे चापरान्हिकम् ।

मृत्युर्न हि परीक्षेत कृतं धास्य न वा कृतम् ॥ ३ ॥

मृतो मृत्युर्जरा जीर्णा विपन्ना किं विपत्तयः ।

व्याधयो व्याधिना किं नु दृप्यन्ति यदस्मी जनाः ॥ ४ ॥

Can any one man that is living assure me to whom this my wealth
will belong on the morrow?"²²

On his bracelets were engraved certain memorable sentences

"Uncertain by nature is human prosperity,
The time of possession is the time for bestowal,
Misfortune is certain to reach you quite soon,
Too late to discover a chance for well-doing"²³

Bhoja had the outlook of a philosopher. He heard with indulgence Dhanapāla, a fanatic Jain, who in a trenchant way condemned Vedic sacrifices and ridiculed Śiva, his guardian god. Even the sacred cow did not escape the poet's pointed shaft. But the emperor smiled, followed his own way and yet cherished Dhanapāla as a friend.

Bhoja cannot be omitted from any literary history of Gujarāt. For from 940 to 1050, Mālhwā and the mainland of Gujarāt formed one integral kingdom and its greatest cultural and literary centre was Dhārā. Further, the literary activities of Hemachandra were mainly inspired by Bhoja.

22 *Bhoja Raja*, p. 61, PC, p. 26

यदनस्तमिते सूर्ये न दत्तं धनमर्थिनाम् ।

तद्धन नैव जानामि प्रातः कस्य भविष्यति ॥

23 *Bhoja Raja*, p. 61, PC, p. 26

इदमन्तरमुपकृतये प्रकृतिचला यावदस्ति सम्पदियम् ।

विपदि नियतोदयाया पुनरुपकर्तुं कुतोऽवसरः ॥

CHAPTER IV

LITERATURE UNDER THE CHĀLUKYAS

1054-1174

Foundation of Gujarāt—Karna (1064-1094)—Bilhana—*Karnasundarī*—Jayasimha Siddharāja (1094-1143)—Siddharāja of Broach—*Udayasundarikathā*—Hemachandra born (1089-1173)—His life—Kumārāpāla (1146-1173)—His works—His position in literature—The creator of Gujarāt consciousness—*Dvyāsraya*—*Kumārāpālacharita*—*Kāvyañūsāsana*—His contemporaries—Rāmachandra (1093-1174)—*Nāṭyadarpana*—*Satyaharischandra*—*Nalavilāsa*—*Kaumudīmītrānanda*—Drama in Gujarāt

WHEN Bhoja died in 1054, overwhelmed by his enemies, his empire fell to pieces. Bhīma Chālukya, the king of Anahilavāḍa, became independent and was soon the master of Saurāshtra, Sārasvata Mandala, Satyapura Mandala, Kachchha, Ānarta, Khetaka Mandala, and the Mahī valley. Thus was laid the foundation of Gujarāt as a separate kingdom under the Chālukyas of Anahilavāḍa Pattana.

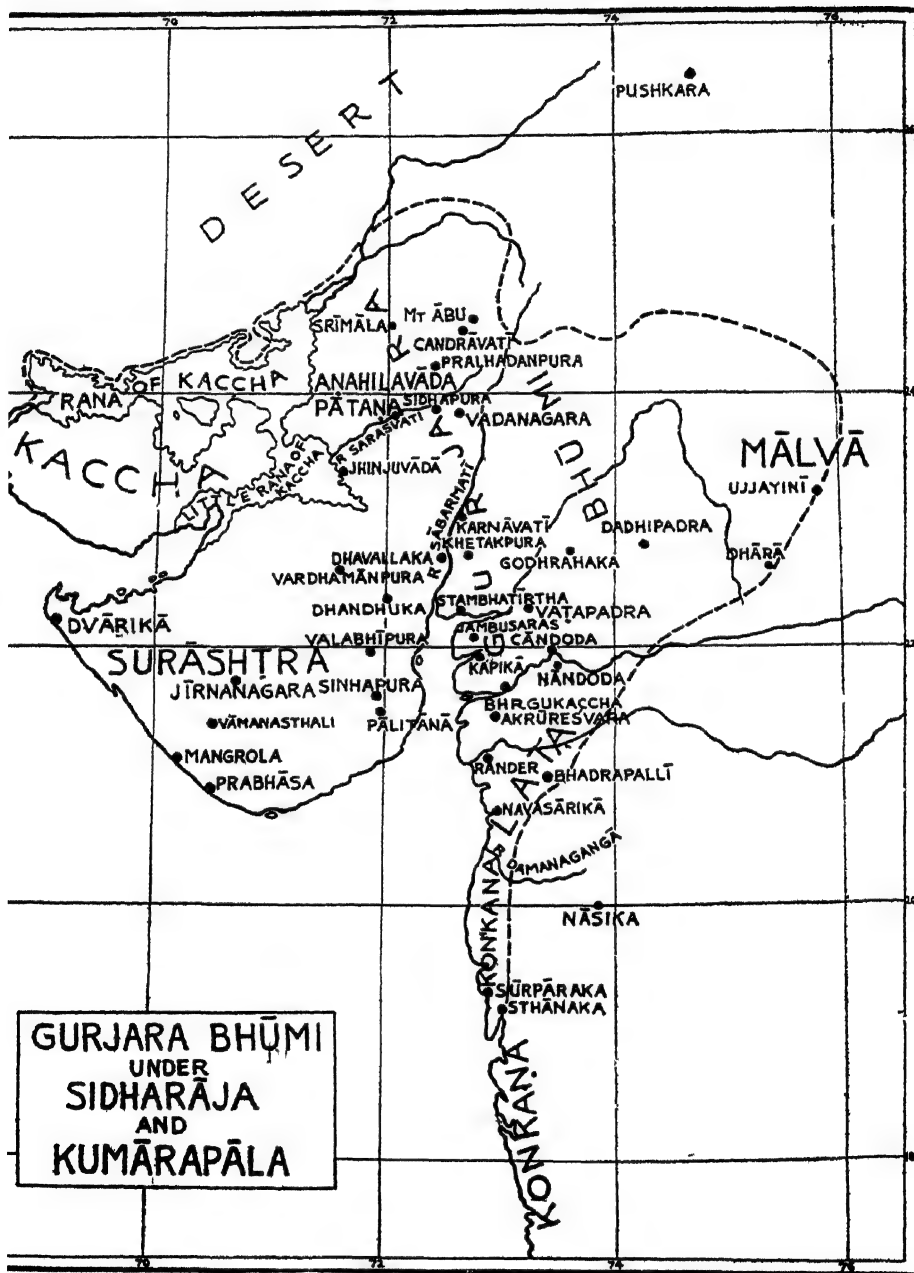
I

Karna (1064-1094), Bhīma's son, founded Karnāvatī (modern Ahmedābād),¹ and extended his conquests as far as Navsārī. But he had to face enemies on all fronts and at his death his domains had shrunk into a principality.

The first drama in Gujarāt appears to have been written by the Kāshmirī Pandit Bilhana at the court of Karna. The drama, *Karnasundarī*, follows the usual love theme. The heroine, daughter of a *vidyādhara*, is seen by the king in a dream and later in a portrait, and he straightaway falls in love with her. The queen comes in the way. In order, however, not to disappoint her husband she presents to him a boy, dressed as *Karnasundarī*, for a bride. The minister cleverly manages to bring the real *Karnasundarī*.

1 cf PC, p 55

कर्णसागरतडागालंकृता कर्णवतीपुर निवेश्य स्वयं तत्र राज्यं चकार ।



to the place of marriage and the drama ends happily. It is probable that this plot was suggested by an incident in the life of king Karna himself which is referred to by Hemachandra in his *Dvyāśraya*. According to this authority Karna fell in love with Mayanallā Devī or Mīnala Devī by seeing her portrait². The play was composed between 1080 and 1090.

II

Karna was succeeded by his son Jayasīma Siddharāja (1094-1143). He met with great difficulties at the beginning of his career, but by 1114 he had conquered Saurāshtra. By 1127 he had conquered up to and inclusive of Kotāh. He conquered Rājputāna up to Mewār. In 1130 he conquered and annexed Mālwa.

Jayasīma Siddharāja made Anahilavāda Pattana the seat of an empire. He united North and South Gujarāt, annexed Kāthiāwār, Kachchha and Mālwa and carried his conquering arms to Ajmer in the north, Kolhāpur in the south, Mahobaka (modern Mahobā) in Bundelkhand in the east. He was an indomitable warrior, a great monarch, and a very generous patron of art and learning. During the fifty years of his rule, Gujarāt became rich, powerful and conscious of its greatness. The foundations of a new literary movement were laid, Pātan acquired an all-India reputation as a seat of culture.

Siddharāja was not merely a great warrior. He was as great, if not greater, as a builder and a patron of learning. He tried to vie with Bhoja in magnificence. He rebuilt Rudramahālaya of Siddhapur and constructed the magnificent lake Sahasralinga at Pātan³. He built temples and dug lakes all over his kingdom and diverted to

2 *Dv* IX 95

तत्रेक्ष्य लिखिता कन्यामुत्कोभूद्राडुवाच च ।

ईदृशत्त सुवै रत्नगर्भाप्येव न चिन्तयेन् ॥

3 *PC*, pp 61-2, *Dv* XV, 114-8, Gode, "Identification of the Siddharaja-Saras" *SILH*, pp 244-50

Pātan the wealth, art and literature for which Ujjayinī and Dhārā had been famous

Pātan was converted into a great University town and the home of all kinds of learning Siddharāja invited Bhāva Brihaspati, the *guru* of the Paramāra kings, to come and stay in Gujarāt He brought the library of Bhoja to Pātan and inspired Hemachandra to write his grammar and emulate Bhoja ⁴ It was the collapse of the Paramāras which attracted the learning of Ujjayinī and Dhārā to Gujarāt

Siddharāja died in 1143 and after a short struggle for succession, Kumārapāla his nephew came to the throne

III

Pātan inherited the learning for which both Valabhīpura and Bhīlamāla had been famous Dhārā and Ujjayinī helped to keep alive the high literary tradition of classical Sanskrit in the schools of learning in Gujarāt The Brāhmanas invited by Mūlarāja to settle in Siddhapur in Gujarāt brought their literary and cultural traditions with them The Nāgara Brāhmanas of Ānandapura (modern Vadnagar) persisted in their loyalty to high Brahmanical tradition, taste and learning, Uvata, a Nāgara (c. 1100), for instance, as referred to above, wrote commentaries on Vedic works at the court of Bhoja The Jain *sādhus* not only continued to write religious works but carried their activities into the field of secular learning

The literary activities of Lāta are represented by Sodḍhala He was born somewhere near Bhrīgukachchha, and was a Vālabha Kāyastha He was brought up by his uncle Gangādhara At Sthānaka, Thānā, three successive kings of Konkan honoured him with their friendship Vatsarāja, the king of Lāta, also invited him to his court He finished his work, *Udayasundarikathā*, at *Śūrpāraka* between 1026 and 1050 He was proud of his Kāyastha lineage, which he traced from Kālāditya, the brother of

Śilāditya of Valabhī, and regarded himself as the peer of Vālmiki and Bāna⁵ His work is an imitation of *Kādambarī* Notwithstanding the existence of this and other productions, literary history of this period in Gujarāt remains dim, till it is lighted up by Hemachandra

Hemachandra's works have been preserved with great care by generations of Jain *sādhus* They have, however, surrounded his life and achievements with unreliable episodes A comparative study of the main legends, tested by autobiographical details supplied by Hemachandra himself, would yield a different picture of this poet, saint, politician, and polymath, the first great literary man who was born in Gujarāt, who worked for Gujarāt and created the group consciousness of Gujarātis

On Kārttika Śukla, 5, Samvat Year 1145 (1089) Chāngā was born a Modha Vaiśya at Dhandhukā At the early age of eight, he was given away by his devout mother to Devachandra of the Pūrnatalla Gachchha, a learned Jaina *sādhu* Devachandra took the boy to Stambhatīrtha, Cambay, and under the patronage of Udayana, the governor of the town, initiated him as a *sādhu* with the name of Somachandra The infant *sādhu* then began his peregrinations, acquiring knowledge as he went about At the age of twenty-one he was promoted to the dignity of a *surī*, a preceptor Thereafter, the little *Chāngā* was known as Hemachandrasūrī

Hemachandra soon came to be acknowledged as a learned Jain *sādhu* The Jains were very powerful in Gujarāt from the tenth century onwards, when the warrior and trader communities, like the Osvāls and Poravāds of Bhīllamāla, migrated to Pātan The *sādhus*, who had carried on their religious and philanthropic propaganda under humiliating conditions till then, gained status It was therefore but natural that they should thenceforth strive to remove the badge of inferiority which had been imposed upon them by the more powerful and learned Brāhmanas Poets like Dhanapāla had acquired a great

⁵ Krishnamachariar, *HCSL*, pp 475 f, Udayasundarikathā (GOS, Baroda, 1920), pp 6 ff, 11, 12, 153-7



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position at Dhārā But the example of Siddhasena Divākara and Haribhadra in their efforts to raise Jain literature to the level of the Brahmanical, has been followed by many *sādhus* They had felt an urge towards participation in the great literary and philosophical movements which, through Sanskrit, were maintaining the homogeneity of politically divided India The Jain *sādhus* no doubt suffered from great disadvantages Their favourite language was the dead Prakrit, their audience was small and mostly composed of the uninfluential, and their doctrine was considered heterodox

Persistent attempts had been made by the Jain *sādhus* in Pātan to enlist the sympathy of the ruling Chālukyas, and when Siddharāja came to the throne it looked as though they would be rewarded with success His mother Minala, Mayanallā Devī, was a Jain and so were some of his ministers When Jayasīma conquered Mālwa, Pātan was already on its way to become a great centre of learning Hemachandra stood out at this critical hour as the most erudite of the Jain *sādhus* in Pātan

In 1138 he led to Pātan the delegation of learned men who waited upon Siddharāja to offer their congratulations on his victory The conqueror had just returned triumphant from his war with Mālwa Siddharāja, jealous of the glory of Bhoja and of the literary reputation of his court, asked Hemachandra to write a Sanskrit grammar, and procured for the scholar the then available grammars from different parts of the country⁶ This was the scholar's opportunity for which he had long been waiting He compiled his famous text-book of grammar, and associating his name with that of the monarch, called it *Siddhahemachandra* Siddharāja got copies of it made, and sent them to all the kings in India Twenty copies were sent to Kāshmir then considered the home of the goddess of learning This gave

6 PC, p 60

बहुभ्यो देशेभ्यस्तत्तद्वेदिभिः पण्डितैः सम सर्वाणि व्याकरणानि पत्तने समानीय श्रीहेमचन्द्राचार्यः श्रीसिद्धहेमाभिधानं अभिनव पञ्चाङ्गमपि व्याकरणं सपादलक्ष-ग्रन्थप्रमाणं संवत्सरेण रचयाचक्रे।

Hemachandra a reputation throughout India, and set him on the career of a polymath in the footsteps of Bhoja the Magnificent

Hemachandra was appointed court poet, and began to compose *Dvyāśraya Mahākāvya*, in which he described the glories of his patron's dynasty while illustrating the rules of Sanskrit grammar. He acquired considerable influence over Siddharāja which served to protect the Jains from the indignities of jealous Brāhmanas who were powerful at court.

On Siddharāja's death, Kumārapāla came to the throne in 1143 and Hemachandra went back to his literary work.

Kumārapāla for a few years maintained the integrity of the empire. Between 1160 and 1170 he added Konkan to Gujarāt⁷. He was however incapable of indulging in grandiose projects of conquests or monumental buildings and did not love incense. He was called to the throne when old in age and seasoned by adversity as few kings before him were, and was peace-loving.

About 1157 Hemachandra came in intimate contact with the king, who had successfully completed a series of campaigns against his neighbours. A man of culture, now about sixty-two years old, the king easily fell under the influence of the scholar, which soon drove the military commanders to revolt or into retirement. Hemachandra in fact ruled Gujarāt through his powerful Jain disciples and the Jains accepted the king as their co-religionist. Jain authors of the succeeding centuries have taken delight in dwelling upon this incident to show that the king adopted the Jain faith to the exclusion of the worship of Somanātha, the tutelary god of the Chālukyas⁸. This claim is pitched too high. Reliable evidence establishes that Kumārapāla was a Śaiva till 1169, four years prior to his death, and that he was not converted to Jainism, if by that

⁷ PC, p. 80, GG, II, pp. 190-1.

⁸ cf. Munshi, GG, II, pp. 191-3, PC, p. 86, KPS, p. 396, etc.

is meant that he gave up his devotion to Śaivism⁹ It is equally well established that he accepted Hemachandra as a counsellor and went to Jain temples, that as a result of Hemachandra's advice, he issued edicts prohibiting the selling and eating of meat, and traffic in intoxicating beverages He gave up meat and wine, gambling, lechery and the chase and took the vows which a devout Jain takes *Ahimsā*, non-violence (in the Jain sense of non-killing) was adopted as a basis of active social and political reform, bringing about a decay in military tradition The military glory of Gujarāt built up by Jayasīma began to vanish

Hemachandra died in 1173 and six months later his royal patron followed him His literary activities continued till his death The commentary on the lexicon *Anekārthasamgraha*, left unfinished, was completed by his disciple Mahendra, after his death

IV

Hemachandra's works may be classified as follows —

I *Grammar* (1) *Siddhahema* or *Siddhahemaśabdānuśāsana* with commentaries (125,000 verses) At places the author has literally borrowed from Śākatāyana, an earlier Jain grammarian The eighth chapter deals with Prakrit (largely borrowed from Vararuchi) and Apabhramśa

II *Lexicon* (2) *Abhidhānachintāmaṇi* Left incomplete Borrowed freely from *Amarakośa*

(3) *Anekārthasamgraha* (Dictionary of Homonyms) Left incomplete

9 Udayapur Inscription (IA, XVIII, pp 341 ff), *Prithvichandracharita* by Sāntisuri (colophon), Stone Inscription in Bhadrakālī temple at Prabhāsa Patana, dated Valabhī Samvat 850 (= A D 1169) (CPSI, p 186-188, st ff 11, 34)

गडो भावबृहस्पति. स्मररिपोरुद्धीक्ष्य देवालय

जीर्णं भूपतिमाह देवसदनं प्रोद्धर्तुमेतद्वच ॥११॥

भक्ति स्मरद्विषि रति परमात्मदृष्टौ

श्रद्धा श्रुतौ व्यसनिता च परोपकारे।

क्षातौ मतिः सुचरितेषु कृतिश्च यस्य

विश्वंभरेऽपि च नृति सुतरां सुखाय ॥३४॥

(4) *Nīghantu Śikshā* (Dictionary of Botanical terms)

(5) *Deśināmamātā* (Prakrit) with commentary

III *Prosody* (6) *Chhandonusāsana*, dealing with Sanskrit, Prakrit and Apabhramśa metres with commentary

IV *Poetics* (7) *Kāvyaṇusāsana* with commentaries *Alaṅkārachūdāmaṇi* and *Viveka* borrowed in parts from Mammata and other authors

V *Logic* (8) *Pramāṇamīmāṃsā*

VI *Epics* (9) *Dvyāśraya* in Sanskrit (20 cantos) and Prakrit [also called (10) *Kumārapālacharita*] (8 cantos), both being historical poems illustrating the rules of grammar

VII *Legendary Biography* (11) *Trishashti-śalākā-purusha-charita* (being the lives of 63 notable Jains (32,000 verses) rewritten from Śilāchārya's (c 870) *Chaupanna-Mahāpurushacharita*

(12) *Parīśishtaparvan* (3,500 verses)

(13) *Mahāvīracharita*

VIII *Miscellaneous* (14) *Yogaśāstra*, (15) *Stotras*

Hemachandra identified Mahāvīra with Śīva. To him Jainism was the noblest of doctrines which made up *dharma*. He respected the Vedas, worshipped Somanātha, and accepted the authority of the *Mahābhārata* and *Manu-smṛiti*. He was an apostle of Aryan Culture. Sanskrit was to him life itself and the classical *kāvyas*, grammars and poetics were the source of his inspiration. Though a zealous propagandist of his faith, he was not a separatist. He gave his sect and province an honourable status in the cultural life of India and became, for his time, the greatest representative of scholastic learning in India.

Hemachandra was the greatest representative of that literary age. It was an age of decadence, it did not possess a spark of the creative art of a Bāṇa or a Bhavabhūti, not even the originality and outlook of Rājaśekhara. Pedantic, tediously descriptive, never profound, it accepted compilation as a substitute for scholarship.

Hemachandra tried to copy Bhoja's polymathic achievements, but Bhoja's range of knowledge and inte-

rests was wider and his literary taste and execution were of a distinctly higher order. The character of the literary activities of these polymaths was determined by their respective temperaments and spheres of life. There was something grandiose about Bhoja's achievements, military, architectural and literary, and if his emphasis on Śringāra indicates any personal predilection, he, in spite of his philosophic outlook, inherited Muñja's attitude towards love. Hemachandra's life was cast in the narrow mould of a Jain *sādhu*. It was devoted to the propaganda of his faith. His early training naturally made him look upon Prakritic studies as important and religious narrative literature as essential to his proselytising duties.

Hemachandra's studies in Prakrit are invaluable. His detailed treatment of Apabhramśa grammar and prosody is the only work of its kind which has been recovered so far. His *Deśināmamālā* is the largest collection of *Deśi* words known to modern scholarship. Naturally therefore Hemachandra's works are the most important early sources for a study of the *Deśi* element in the Prakrit and Apabhramśa and the present day North Indian languages. His Prakrit grammar and lexicons contain words unknown to classical Sanskrit but which appear in some form or other in the Middle and New Indo-Aryan languages.

Many of his works are valuable compilations or borrowings from earlier works and preserve for us the wealth of earlier learning now lost to us.

V

With the break-up of the Gurjara empire in 940, the Āryāvarta consciousness as an effective group sentiment disappeared in politics. The aggressive pride of the new royal families, the segregation of Brāhmanas and Vaiśyas into castes separate from the Kshatriyas, the inveterate policy of maintaining relentless foes on their throne as restless feudatories, and the wars of succession at the death of almost every ruler, contributed to the disintegration of the political organisation. The Āryāvarta consciousness as a political sentiment had disappeared. Dur-

ing this period the localisation of sentiments grew apace and even conquerors like Muñja and Bhoja prided themselves on being kings of Dhārā

If Siddharāja was the political creator of Gujarāt, Hemachandra was the creator of the Gujarāt consciousness. Siddharāja's one aim in war and peace was to outshine the traditional fame of the semi-mythical Vikramāditya and of Bhoja Paramāra with whose fame India was then resounding. He was a generous man, amenable to flattery and anxious to attain immortality if literature could procure it for him. He was building an empire, and the people of Gujarāt were acquiring the proud tradition of being a great people. Hemachandra gave the tradition a conscious form. He gave up the peregrinations enjoined by his religious vows, and with masterly skill and statesmanship, concentrated his intellectual powers upon leaving a great literary heritage to Gujarāt.

VI

But the work which gave birth to Gujarāt consciousness was *Dvyāśraya*. It was not merely a laudatory poem, it deliberately fostered a pride in the greatness of the Chālukya kings, who had made it a power and given it glorious associations. In this work he described the achievements of the Chālukyas in the orthodox literary style and invested them with the dignity which classical poets had reserved for the ancient royal houses of Sūrya (the Sun) and Chandra (the Moon). Gurjarabhūmi in Hemachandra's work became a great country, Pātan rivalled the glories of ancient Ayodhyā. The march of Mūlarāja on Grāharipu of Saurāshtra was described in the manner of Raghu's conquests.¹⁰ As literature this latter day specimen of Kāvya, but for stray flashes of poetic power and some historical material, is lifeless and pedantic. Hyperbolic praise of his royal masters betrays not only the courtier poet but indicates that the political horizon of this foremost Indian scholar of the age was restricted to the frontiers of his small province.

10 *Dv* Cantos II-V.

Kumārapālacharita, illustrating the rules of Prakrit and Apabhramśa grammar, is an attempt to give a Vikramāditya of its own to Gujarāt. It has served as a model for innumerable *charitas*, *prabandhas* and *rāsās* which have kept alive the memory of Chālukyan Gujarāt, fostered provincial patriotism and helped to build up a tradition of unity for modern Gujarāt. Siddharāja gave political greatness to Gujarāt. Hemachandra gave it a distinctive literary and historical consciousness by localising both sentiment and perspective. In two hundred years the Āryāvarta consciousness of Rājaśekhara gave place to Hemachandra's Gujarāt consciousness. Naturally, to Hemachandra, Mūlarāja was the creator of Gujarāt and, in a sense, he was, and he it was who was responsible for giving a narrow and partial view of Gujarāt's history by setting the limit at 942.

The poem opens with a description of Kumārapāla and the feudatories waiting upon him. Anahilapura is then described, as also the wealth of its king, the splendour of its Jain temples, and the liberality with which the king worshipped at these temples. The magnificence of the king's possessions, his gardens, the luxury in which he lived, and the pastimes of his people during different seasons are then dealt with. Canto VI deals with Kumārapāla's war with Mallikārjuna of Konkana. Ambada, minister Udayana's son, who bore the title of Rājapitāmaha, achieves a victory over the king of Konkana and brings his head, covered with gold, to Kumārapāla. The other conquests of the king are then referred to. In canto VII, Kumārapāla wakes up to find himself a Jain uttering religious wisdom, and invokes Śrutadevī. The goddess, in canto VIII, delivers a sermon full of the well-known philosophic and religious doctrines of Jainism. It is very poor as a *kāvya*, but it aims at conciseness and proportion, and possesses some literary art, which later Gujarātī poets never succeeded in reproducing. Prakrit, as this work shows, was next to Sanskrit the literary language of the Jain *sādhus*.

Trishashtīśalākāpuruṣa, re-written from Śīla's (c. 870)

Mahāpurushacharīya, and *Parīśishtaparvan* are lengthy collections of Jain legends of heroes and saints. They are typical of Jain literature. In one of them, for instance, Chandragupta Maurya is made out to be a devout Jain. Ordinarily very crude, they appeal only to those who are fired by the ardour of faith. In Dr. Keith's words, they do not attain the level of literature.¹¹

His *Kāvyañuśāsana* is borrowed from Mammata's famous *Kāvyaṇṇakāśa* and other similar works.¹² His grammar, *Siddhahemachandra*, is a monumental work. The first seven *adhyāyas* deal with Sanskrit, and the eighth with Prakrit, Śauraseni, Māgadhī, Paisāchī, Chūlikāpaisāchī and Apabhramśa. The work is more in the nature of a text book prepared from works of authority, but has been of immense value in the study of Prakrit and Apabhramśa. His *Yogasāstra* is very elementary, and falls far below the standard of many Jain works on the subject.

VII

Hemachandra spent his life in trying to assert the ethical and literary superiority of his sect over the Brāhmana scholars at the court of Pātan. Their names and works have been unfortunately lost to us. Āmiga, the grandfather of the poet Someśvara, a Brāhmana of Vadnagar, was the hereditary family priest of Siddharāja and a man of learning. He was able to resist Hemachandra's attempts to acquire exclusive influence over the king. The great Bhāva Bṛhaspati, respected by Siddharāja, Kumārapāla, and the king of Ujjayinī, was by all accounts a mighty, venerable Brahmana of interprovincial influence. Kakkala, a *Kāyastha*, and a friend of Hemachandra, was a great grammarian. But we know nothing of them except what is conveyed by stray and biased references in the works of Jain authors.

Of the Jain contemporaries of Hemachandra, the avail

¹¹ HSL, p. 294

¹² cf. Gode, *SILH*, pp. 26-30, *HK* I, pp. 521-3, De, *Sanskrit Poetics*, I, p. 203, etc.

able list is fairly long. But most of them have left purely religious works. One of them, however, is noteworthy. Śrīpāla (c. 1095-1154) was, according to Jain authorities, *Kavīndra*, or poet laureate, of Śiddharāja. The king, it is stated, had great affection for him and called him brother.¹³ He is said to be the author of a lost *Kāvya*, *Vairochanaparājaya*. Some of his *prasastis*, eulogies, and a few of his verses quoted by other authors are available, and prove the poet's mastery over the technique then universally accepted by Sanskrit poets. Any estimate of his poetic worth is impossible. The poet's son and grandson were also poets. Two minor poets, Vardhamāna and Śāgarachandra, have left poems in eulogy of Śiddharāja. Vāgbhata, doubtfully identified with the son of the minister Udayana, wrote a work on poetics on the lines of Hemachandra's *Kāvyaṇuśāsana*.

VIII

Literary works have been left by some pupils of Hemachandra, the most noteworthy of these being Rāmachandra (c. 1093-1174). Śiddharāja gave him the title of '*Kavīkatāramalla*'¹⁴. He appears also to have been a recipient of royal favour during the reign of Kumārapāla. But according to a story preserved by the *Prabandhakośa* (1349), he tried to prevent Ajayapāla from succeeding Kumārapāla on the throne. That prince, upon his accession, took his revenge by making the politically minded *sādhu* stand on a red-hot piece of copper. Rāmachandra was a prolific writer. Some of his works possess real merit, a rare thing for an age in which mere capacity to write in stereotyped Sanskrit was often the only passport to literary fame. The poet called himself the author of a

13 cf. Krishnamachariar, *HCSL*, pp. 195 f., also *EI*, I, pp. 293 ff., st. 30-

एकाहनि(ष्य)न्नमहाप्रबध श्रीसिद्धराजप्रतिपन्नबन्धु ।

श्रीपालनामा कविचक्रवर्ती प्रशस्तिमेतामकरोत्प्रशस्ताम् ॥

14 cf. *Nalavilāsa* (GOS, Baroda, 1926), Intr. pp. 27-8.

hundred *prabandhas*, out of which over twenty-five have come down to us ¹⁵

Nāṭyadarpana, a treatise which Rāmachandra composed in collaboration with Gunachandra, another pupil of Hemachandra, has valuable quotations from lost plays, and is a store-house of literary and historical material. This treatise, though planned on Dhanañjaya's *Daśarūpa*, shows its author to be an original thinker. He departed from the orthodox theory that there were only ten kinds of dramas, and added *Nāṭikā* and *Prakarana* to make them twelve. But a bolder departure was to have divided *rasa*, sentiment, into pleasurable and painful ¹⁶. All the authorities, including Hemachandra, had insisted that the *rasas* must produce pleasure similar to that of realizing Brahma. But according to Rāmachandra, people go to see painful dramas in order to see the skill of the poet or the actor ¹⁷. Thus he entered upon a defence of tragedy. Rāmachandra combated another prevailing belief that an actor did not experience the feelings which he represented. He maintained that an actor would himself feel what he wanted his audience to feel 'just as a prostitute, in trying to please others, does herself experience pleasure' ¹⁸. Evidently the

15 cf प्रबन्धशतविधाननिष्ठातबुद्धिना (*Kaumudīmītrānanda*, p 2) प्रबन्धशत-
कर्तृमहाकवे रामचन्द्रस्य (*Nirbhayabhīmaṣyāyoga*, Prastāvanā) Thirty-
nine works have been enumerated in the introduction to the
Nalavilāsa (p 33)

16 ND, III 109, pp 158 ff

स्थायी भाव श्रितोत्कर्षो विभाव-व्यभिचारिभि ।

स्पष्टानुभावनिश्चेय सुख-दुःखात्मको रस ॥

17 cf ND, p 159

अनेनैव च सर्वाङ्गाह्लादकेन कवि-नटशक्तिजन्मना चमत्कारेण
विप्रलब्धा परमानन्दरूपता दुःखात्मकेष्वपि कष्टादिषु सुमेधस प्रतिजानते
तदास्वादलौल्येन प्रेक्षका अपि एतेषु प्रवर्तन्ते ।

18 cf ND, p 160

पण्यस्त्रियो हि धनलोभेन पररत्यर्थं रतादि विषञ्चयन्त्य
कदाचित् स्वयमपि परा रतिमनुभवन्ति । . एव नटोऽपि रामादिगत
विप्रलम्भाद्यनुकुर्वाण. कदाचित् स्वयमपि तन्मयीभावमुपयात्येवेति ।

author was not merely a theoretical exponent of dramatic technique, but had practical experience of stagecraft

Few dramas appear to have been written after Rājaśekhara Hemachandra in his *Kāvyaṇuśāsana* describes in detail twelve different kinds of dramas and has a dissertation even on acting Rāmachandra is credited with having written eleven dramas His *Satya Harischandra* is a drama in six Acts In this drama the poet deals with tragic situations in a manner which is reminiscent of Bhavabhūti Other dramas of Rāmachandra are not extant, but he must be ranked as the most prolific dramatist of the age and one who boldly departed from the decadent traditions of the time, though it cannot be stated that he achieved any approach to the great masters of drama, Kālidāsa and Bhavabhūti

His *Nalavilāsa* is a good instance from which to judge his literary worth The story of Nala and Damayantī is so brimful of human appeal and dramatic situations that few men of letters in India have escaped its fascination The story originally told in the *Mahābhārata*, has been made use of, among the old eminent authors, by Gunādhya, Kshemendra, Somadeva, Śrīharsha and Trivikrama, and among the Jain writers before Rāmachandra, by Dharmasena, and Hemachandra After him, numerous Gujarātī authors through the centuries have worked upon it He alone, however, has tried to introduce realism into the drama by eliminating some of its miraculous incidents, like the message sent through a swan This may have been necessitated by the exigencies of the stage It may have been also a result of literary perception unusual for those times, and entitles the poet to rank high among latter-day dramatists

IX

Another noteworthy drama by the same author is *Kaumudīmītrānanda* It is a *prakarana*, a bourgeois comedy The plot is made up of a number of incidents loosely woven together as in *kathās* It is very much inferior to the *prakarana* masterpiece *Mrchchhakatika*, but has some delightful touches At places, it discloses a

sense of humour, and is characteristically free from allegory and the aggressively propagandistic features of Jain works

Mitrānanda, a merchant, with his friend Maitreya, while at sea, is stranded on an island occupied by a gang of swindlers disguised as ascetics. The leader of the gang has a novel method of robbing people. He entices strangers to marry his daughter, Kaumudī, and after the marriage contrives to have them flung into a pit under the nuptial chamber. But on this occasion when Mitrānanda makes love to Kaumudī, she actually falls in love with her father's intended victim and reveals to him the impending danger. Both seek safety in flight to Sīṃhaladvīpa (Ceylon).

Their path, however is beset with danger. Mitrānanda, taken for a thief, is arrested, but is saved by the king whose son he has cured of snake-bite. The king leaves him and Kaumudī in charge of the minister. The minister, enamoured of Kaumudī, sends away Mitrānanda to one of the king's vassals, who wants a victim for human sacrifice. Mitrānanda is, however, recognised and saved by his friend Maitreya who happens to be in great favour with the vassal.

Kaumudī is turned out of the minister's house by his jealous wife. She wanders until she meets Sumitrā, daughter of a merchant. Shortly afterwards, she is captured, with Sumitrā's family, by Prince Vajravarmaṇ. When in captivity Kaumudī and Sumitrā meet Makaranda, a friend of Mitrānanda. Sumitrā marries Makaranda, and the three begin their unhappy adventures. They encounter a *kāpālīka* who, in order to kill Makaranda, revives a corpse. But the resurrected man kills the *kāpālīka* instead. Makaranda then repairs to the king of Ceylon and finds Mitrānanda. The drama, so full of incoherent marvels, ends happily as Kaumudī meets her long-lost husband.

The lovers have been walking for a long time. Mitrānanda offers to massage Kaumudī's tired feet. She, abashed, will not let him do so. "To forget good manners is not

praiseworthy for the daughter-in-law of a respectable family” Then follows this dialogue

Mitrānanda —(to himself) She does not know my family, nor my temper I have not conferred any obligation upon her And yet this dark-eyed one has given up her relatives for me Really women are thoughtless when in love ¹⁹

(to Kaumudī) Dear, you have willingly undertaken great hardship, left your home, borne cold, heat and wind, wandered on foot, made yourself the laughing-stock of relatives who loved you so long, and all this for me, a merchant from a very distant country, whose family, character and wealth you do not know, whose love you cannot be sure of You wish to climb the mountain but blindly You wish to cross the ocean without even a cockle shell to carry you across Without remedy at hand, you have lashed a big snake to fury

Kaumudī

Āryaputra, all women behave like this Why are you surprised at this conduct of mine? Women, inspired by love, leave their long-cherished family for lovers whom they have seen but for a moment ²⁰

Mitrānanda —(to himself) Women are pre-eminent among the heroic Blinded by love, they hold their life as a blade of grass ²¹

19 *Kaumudīmītrānanda*, IV 2

न मे गोत्र वेद प्रकृतिमपि न
स्वभावस्था किं चोपकृतमपि नास्या किमपि मे ।

” तथाप्येषा बन्धूनमुचदसिताक्षी मम कृते ।
पुरन्ध्रीणा प्रेमग्रहिलमविचार खलु मन ॥

20 *op cit*, IV 3 (Sanskrit Chhāyā on p 41 note)

क्षणमात्रदृष्टप्रियजनप्रेमभरोद्विह्वला महिला ।
चिरपरिचितानपि मुञ्चन्ति बान्धवानेषा किल प्रकृति ॥

21 *op cit*, IV 4

वीरेषु गणना पूर्वं परमर्हन्ति योषितः ।
यास्तृणायाभिमन्यन्ते प्राणान्प्रेमान्धचेतसः ॥

Kaumudī They may go to foreign lands, suffer misery, wander unhappily, but they are true to their lovers, not to their own people.²²

In Gujarāt this was a century of drama. On festive or religious occasions, as a rule, plays were performed in temples with some kind of scenic display, and considerable attention was paid to acting. Out of the twenty-six dramas, discovered and undiscovered, which Gujarāt has contributed to the six hundred odd dramas in Sanskrit, twenty-three belong to the century between c 1150 and 1250, and of these Rāmachandra composed as many as eleven. He wrote four varieties, *nātaka*, *prakarana*, *nāṭikā* and *vyāyoga*. Three dramas were written by two other pupils of Hemachandra, Devachandra and Yaśāśchandra, and the rest by writers of the succeeding two generations. Among them was Yaśahpāla who wrote *Mudrita-Kumudachandra-Prakarana* and *Rājamatī-prabodha*. The first relates to the debate between Devasūri, a Śvetāmbara *sādhū* and Kumudachandra a Dīgambara *sādhū*. It gives a graphic picture of the social and religious atmosphere in Gujarāt. Other dramas written under the influence of this school in Gujarāt were Devachandra's *Chandralekhāvijayaprakarana*, Vijayapāla's *Draupadīsvayamvara*, Rāmabhadra's *Prabud-dharauhineya*, Bālachandra's *Karunāvajrāyudha* and Subhata's *Dūtāngada* which was staged at the reception of Kumārāpāla. The poet Subhata appears to have styled himself Mahākavi.²³

Rāmachandra made a great effort to revive the drama in Gujarāt. But life and culture both were stagnating all over India for want of creative urge and the inspiration of Kālidāsa and Bhavabhūti had ebbed out.

22 *op cit*, IV 5 (Sanskrit Chhāyā on p 42 note)

देश व्रजन्ति विषमं सहन्ते दुःख आस्यन्ति दुःखिताः।

तथापि सहिलानां प्रेम दयिते न स्वजनवर्गे॥

23 *cf Dūtāngada* (KM, 28, Ed Bombay, 1935) p 2

पदवाक्यप्रमाणपारगतेन महाकविना सुभटेन...।

CHAPTER V

APABHRAMŚA LITERATURE

Early references to Apabhramsa—Its extent—Its early literature — Dhanapāla (c 900) — *Bhavisayattakahā* — The literature found in Hemachandra's works—in the works of Somaprabha (1185)—in the works of Merutunga (1303)—*Muñja rāsa*

APABHRAMŚA was a literary language of Gujarāt at least from the time of the rise of Valabhīpura Dandin (c 500) recorded that literature found expression in four media Sanskrit, Prakrit, Apabhramśa, and Mixed “The speech of Ābhīras and others in literature is known as Apabhramśa,” he said, thus clearly implying that Apabhramśa was spoken not only by Ābhīras but by others as well, and that it had become the object of literary culture ¹ Bhāmaha (c 650) described *Kāvya* as threefold Sanskrit, Prakrit and Apabhramśa ² Rudrata (c 900) put it on a level with the older literary Prakrit and Sanskrit, and recognised varieties according to the country in which it was spoken ³ Rājaśekhara (c 900) made it a limb of *Kāvyaapurusha*, poetry personified, and referred to it as be-

1 *Kāvyaādarsa*, I 32, 36

तदेव वाङ्मय भूय संस्कृत प्राकृत तथा ।
अपभ्रंशश्च मिथ चेत्याहुरार्याश्चतुर्विधम् ॥३२॥
आभीरादिगिर. काव्येष्वपभ्रंश इति स्मृता ।
शास्त्रे तु संस्कृतादन्यदपभ्रंशतयोदितम् ॥३६॥

2 *Kāvyaālamkāra* I 16

शब्दार्थौ सहितौ काव्य गद्य पद्य च तद्विधा ।
संस्कृतं प्राकृत चान्यदपभ्रंश इति त्रिधा ॥१६॥

3 *Kāvyaālamkāra*, II 12

प्राकृतसंस्कृतमागधपिशाचभाषाश्च सूरसेनी च ।
षष्ठोऽत्र भूरिभेदो देशविशेषादपभ्रंशः ॥१२॥

ing used in the literature of Mārwar and Saurāshtra⁴ In his time, it was a literary language Bhoja (c 1000) contemptuously refers to the Gurjaras as being satisfied with this language and no other⁵ Namisādhū (c 1069) calls Apabhramśa Prakrit itself, and refers to its varieties, Upanāgara, Ābhīra and Grāmya According to him, the language could be properly learnt only from the people themselves⁶ Thus, Apabhramśa had one dialect for citizens, another for Ābhīras, a third for the vulgar

Considerable light has been thrown of late on Apabhramśa and its literature It is clear that it was never a spoken language and at no stage of its history was it identical with the *deśabhāshās*, the dialects of the day It was mainly the language of poetry, for, so far, no prose work in Apabhramśa has been recovered Its sound system was taken from the literary Prakrits while its grammatical system and idiomatic expression were taken from the *deśabhāshās* Nine-tenths of the words used in Apabhramśa verse are the same as the words used in Prakrit verse, one-tenth of the word-stock however was *deśī* and most probably taken from the *deśabhāshās* of the day The grammatical structure on the other hand was more developed than that of the Prakrits and was the parent of the grammatical structure of modern Indian languages like

4 *Kāvya-mīmāṃsā*, pp 6, 34

शब्दार्थौ ते शरीरं सस्कृतं मुखं प्राकृतं ब्राह्मं जघनमपभ्रंशं पैशाचं
पादौ उरो मिश्रम् । (p 6)

सुराष्ट्रवचनाद्या ये पठन्त्यपितसौष्ठवम् ।

अपभ्रंशावदशानि ते सस्कृतवचास्यपि ॥

5 *Sarasvatīkaṇṭhābhārana* (KM, 94, Bombay, 1925), II 13

शृण्वन्ति लटभ लाटा प्राकृतं संस्कृतद्विष ।

अपभ्रंशेन तुष्यन्ति स्वेन नान्येन गुर्जरा ॥१३॥

6 Comm on Rudraṭa's *Kāvya-lamkāra* (KM, 2, 3rd Ed Bombay, 1928), p 15

तथा प्राकृतमेवापभ्रंशः । स चान्यैरुपनागराभीरग्राभ्यस्त्वभेदेन त्रिधोक्त-
स्तन्निरासार्थमुक्त भूरिभेद इति । कुतो देशविशेषात्कारणात् । तस्य च
लक्षणं लोकादेव सम्यगवसेयम् ।

Gujarātī and Hindī in their early stages The spirit of the language also is more allied to these modern Indian languages than to the Prakrits For instance, the idioms characteristic of Apabhramśa are more akin to those of modern Indian languages while literary Prakrits have a closer affinity with Sanskrit It therefore appears that the *deśabhāshās* of the day could make their appearance in literature only as Apabhramśa and not in their pure unmixed form The basic texture being Prakrit, there was no fixed limit up to which the *deśī* elements could penetrate into Apabhramśa It was therefore but natural that as time went on, the *deśī* element became stronger and stronger till it led to a stage represented by the language of the *Prākṛita-Paṃgala* about the fourteenth century In such works only vestiges of Apabhramśa proper are found

Earlier authorities recognise three dialects of Apabhramśa,—Vrāchada, Nāgara and Upanāgara Vrāchada, it seems, was comparatively more archaic When it was refined it became Nāgara⁷ When there was a considerable admixture of Prakrit in it, it came to be called Upanāgara But as Nāgara or classical Apabhramśa, as exemplified in Hemachandra's Prakrit grammar, found favour as a literary language over wider areas, it began to accept local elements from different provinces within its range These dialectical variations of Nāgara Apabhramśa were recognised by Rudrata (c 900) From the published Apabhramśa works two varieties of Apabhramśa can be roughly distinguished, viz the Gurjara Apabhramśa mostly used by the Śvetāmbara Jains who resided in Gurjaradeśā, and the southern variety used by the Dīgambara Jains who worked in the South Some of the peculiarities of the Gurjara Apabhramśa were inherited by Old Western Rājasthānī and through it by Gujarātī and Mār-wārī On the other hand some of the peculiarities of the Dīgambara Apabhramśa have curiously come down to Vra-

7 cf Keith *HSL*, p 35

jabhāshā. No clear-cut division, however, is discernible, for both varieties draw lavishly from each other

Generally, Apbhramśa was cultivated by the Jain sādhus, but the Buddhists and the Hindus did not eschew this literary medium, though with the exception of the *Dohākośa*, composed in East Bengal, no Buddhist Apabhramśa work has been recovered so far. The older view held by Grierson that Apabhramśa was the transitional stage between Prakrit and the present day Indian languages, and that there were as many Apabhramśas as there were Prakrits, does not hold good. The Vrāchaḍa variety is generally associated with Sindh. The second variety, said to be the idiom of the Ābhīras, is the Gurjara variety. Old Western Rājasthānī and Vrajabhāshā are allied to Apabhramśa more than any other New Indo-Aryan language. From this it is clear that Apabhramśa had its birth in Sindh, Rājasthān and Gujarāt and was a Western dialect.

Extensive Apabhramśa literature has come to light and it is now possible to form a rough idea of its scope and nature. Its extreme limits can be placed between the sixth and the fifteenth centuries A.D., though the latter limit is somewhat flexible. It is impossible to determine at what point of time Apabhramśa ceased to exist and the modern Indian language came on the scene. The Apabhramśa tradition, however, continued in literature even after the tertiary deśabhāshās became literary languages.

The literature in Apabhramśa, which is mostly religious or didactic and enclosed in a narrative frame, falls into the following categories —

1. The Dharmakathā literature falling under the following heads —

- (a) *Charitras*, lives of religious notables, mythological, legendary or historical,
- (b) The *Mahāpurānas*, the lives of the sixty-three eminent persons of the Jain faith,
- (c) The epics embracing the story of Rāma and Krishna, like the *Paumachariya*, and the *Harivamśapurāna*

(d) *Kathākośa*, connected with the *Bhagavatī Ārā-dhanā* of the Digambaras

2 Other literature is (i) religious, dealing with Jain doctrines or inspired by the mystical and mystico-religious spirit, or (ii) didactic. But it would be an error to believe that there was no secular literature in Apabhramśa. Though no single work has come to light so far, most of the works contain clear evidence that there was considerable literature in Apabhramśa which was heroic or erotic.

But the most popular form of literature was the social *dharmakathā*, of which an excellent specimen has been preserved *Bhavisayattakahā* (Sanskrit, *Bhaviṣyadattakathā*) was composed by Dhanapāla about the tenth century.

The poet belonged to a *Dhakkada Vanik* family. The style bears traces of Sanskrit inspiration, the descriptions are vivid and true to life and the story is well-told. It is made up of two disjointed parts, the original *kathā*, and the typical Jain ending. The first part of the story is very interesting, rich in adventure, and powerful in appeal. In some places, it possesses the freshness which we associate with the stirring tales of the *Arabian Nights*.

In the city of Gajapura, or Hastinapura, there lived a young, handsome and wealthy merchant, and his wife, Kamalaśrī, who gave birth to Bhaviṣya, the hero of the poem. He grew up into a very attractive child and received both a liberal and a military education.

His father grew cold towards the mother and married a second wife, Surūpā. She gave birth to Bandhudatta, who grew up strong and turbulent, wanton and pleasure-loving. He was a terror to respectable citizens. A desire to go to foreign lands took possession of this boy, and he collected about him needy young merchants ready to participate in his adventures. Even the king could not withhold permission from this impetuous youth. His brother, Bhaviṣya, was also infected with the spirit of adventure and joined his younger brother.

The father's parting advice is reminiscent of Polonius's

"If through obduracy you decide to go, (keep this in mind), never speak a harsh word Son, speak like an ignorant man who knows not the ways of commerce Never give your heart even to friends Speak little and in measured terms Increase your wealth by all means, if need be even by deceiving and making signs with hands Praise your own commodities, and learn the mind of the other party by diverting his attention Never let your secrets be known, and always try to know those of others Heed not another's actions, even if you come to know of them, deflect not from your course Do not let anyone know your character, but discover the nature of others by gaining their confidence"⁸

They sailed down the river Yamunā and came to the open sea A gale drove their little fleet to a distant island, Mainākadvīpa by name The young adventurers landed on the island Bhavishya went into the interior in search of fruits and flowers, and was soon lost to sight Bandhudatta had now an opportunity to translate his hatred for his brother into action, and, in spite of remonstrances of his companions, ordered the party to set sail

When Bhavishya found that he had been left alone on an unknown island, he courageously entered the forest full of birds and beasts, and after making an offering to Jina, he took a path which led across the mountains He came upon a city with lofty buildings, beautiful archways, white painted houses with half open doors and windows,

8 BK, II 6 (p 15)

तुडिंहि चडिचि जइ त किर किज्जइ, वयणु वि नउ करालु जपिज्जइ ।
 बोल्लहि पुत्त जेम अण्णाणिउ, किं वणिउत्तहं मग्गु न याणिउ ।
 सुहियहि हियउ णाहिं अप्पिच्चउ, परिमिउ थोउ थोउ जपिच्चउ ।
 अत्थु चिठप्पइ विविहपयारिहिं, वचिचि करसन्नासचारिहिं ।
 अप्पुणु पक्खे भड्डु सलहिच्चउ, अण्णहो चित्त विचित्तु लहेच्चउ ।
 अप्पुणु अगु णाहिं दरिसिच्चउ, अण्णहो तणउ परामरिसिच्चउ ।
 घत्ता । परकज्ज सुणतु वि णउ सुणइ, अप्पण कज्जहो णउ चलइ ।
 ण कलावइ केणचि णियचरिउ, परहो अगि पइसिचि कलइ ॥६॥

and a market-place rich in wares All these, however, presented an unearthly appearance The palace was untenanted and silent "All musical instruments had assumed silence with the thought that there was nobody to play on them"⁹ Undaunted, Bhavishya came to a temple, where he duly offered worship, and went to sleep

The god Achyutanātha came to know of his plight, and ordered Manibhadra, the king of the Yakshas, to protect Bhavishya and lead him back safely to Gajapura When Bhavishya awoke from his sleep, he heard words directing him to go to a house where his future wife awaited him He followed the direction, and found a lovely maiden, "whose limbs, visible through her filmy dress, slyly laughed at him"¹⁰ She slowly overcame her shyness and besought him to take her away before the demon, who had made the city lifeless, destroyed him Bhavishya narrated to her his own story, was convinced that they were made for each other, and offered marriage to her The girl expressed willingness to accept him

On hearing this, the son of Pankajaśrī (Bhavishya) gifted with good manners and well-born, smiled, and said "Oh long-eyed one, what you say is right I am myself amazed Deserted by my own relatives and kinsmen, I was led to you in this way, no doubt, by my good fortune The traders with whom I came, left me alone in the forest, and as I wandered from place to place, I came to your house Drive all your fears of danger away Have no fears, daughter of a good merchant You are well born I, son of a well-born merchant, am from Kurujāngala Fate alone has brought us together Now everything will soon be well"¹¹

9 Bk, IV 11 (p 28)

एवाँहि अम्हाँहि को वज्जवइ, थक्कइ मउणु लएविणु णावइ ।

10 BK, V 9 (p 32)

पोत्तरउन्निन्नपयासई, त विहसति पिहियपरिहासइ

11 BK, V 14 (p 35)

त निसुणिवि पकयसिरिपुत्ति, विहसिउ सीलकुलक्कमजुत्ति ।

हे पसयच्छि कहिउ पइ चगउ, महु अच्छेरयाँभिउ अगउ ।

The young lady trembled with excitement, and straightaway, "was pierced with the arrows of the god of love" The girl "with tremulous eyes," though overpowered by bashfulness which showed her graces to advantage, was bold and quite modern She asked "Why don't you do what is imminent?"

But she did not yet know the man's character

Bhavishya, muttering a prayer to Vira, firmly replied, "O lady with lovely eyes, what you say is right But, beauteous maid, I have vowed to abstain from uncere-monial wedlock When some one is found to give you to me in marriage, your desire will be satisfied If nobody gives your hand to me, we shall live only as comrades in spirit " The girl perceived that he was an extraordinary man and restrained her feelings The sun was about to set ¹²

A desert isle, a setting sun, a beautiful maiden and a handsome man discovering their soul's affinity, the girl's audacious question, and the reply are elements in a situation full of charm and romance And it is the work of a celibate Jain *sādhū* addressed to a Gujarātī middle-class audience a thousand years ago!

One day the demon appeared, fearful as darkness, like unto "the loud laughter of Death " Bhavishya faced

હુ મિં ઇત્યુ દઈલિં સજોઈઝ, નિયબધવસયણાહિં વિચ્છોઈઝ ।
 જેણ સમાણુ ઘણિજ્જેં આયઝ, તેણ જિ ઘણિ ઘલ્લિઝ અસહાયઝ ।
 સેરઝ દીલિં દીઝ ભમતઝ, બલિં તઝ મદિરિ સપત્તઝ ।
 એવિં દરિ દુરિઝ વિસજ્જહિ, અભઝ અભઝ ભઝ સયલુ વિવજ્જહિ ।
 તુહુ ઘણિવરકુમારિ કુલિ પુગલે, હુઝ ઘણિઝત્તુ દેસિં કુરુજગલે ।
 વિહિલ્લિં સઘડિઝ સમાગઝ મચ્છુઝ હોસઈ સયલુ વિ ચગઝ ॥૧૪॥

12 BK, V 15 (p 35)

પમળઈ વીરચરિત્તુ અકપિઝ, ચગઝ પડ પસયચ્છિ પયપિઝ ।
 અહ મહુ મુદ્ધિ પરિપ્ફુઝ્ઝમાણહો, અત્થિ નિલિત્તિ અદત્તાદાણહો ।
 જામ્બહિં મજ્ઞુ કો વિ પડે દેસઈ, તામહિં સવ્વુ તેમ ત હોસઈ ।
 અહ નઝ દેઈ કોઈ તઝ અગઝ, તા અમ્હહ સાહમ્મિયસગઝ ।
 ઘત્તા । તો ચિંતિઝ તાણ, એહુ કોલિ સામન્નુ નલિ ।
 સઘરિઝ ચિયાહ, તાહિ અત્થવળહો ઢુક્કુ રલિ ॥૧૫॥

him, ready to fight But the demon suddenly recollected his own former life and took kindly to the hero In a sudden outburst of friendliness, he made the city hum with life, and bestowed it, as also the maiden, on the lucky hero

Years passed, happy for Bhavishya and his wife, unhappy for the bereaved parents in distant Gajapura In the course of time, the young lovers grew tired of the city "To live in this lonely city is to see a dream, or to dance in darkness" They left it, and with all their valuables, came to the seashore, where they hoisted a signal on the top of a tree to attract the attention of a passing ship

Bandhudatta's party was again shipwrecked on the island, and met the couple Bhavishya forgave his perfidious brother, loaded him with presents, and told him his story Bandhu, though still jealous and spiteful, spoke sweet words and celebrated their reunion In a happy mood, they all prepared to leave the island But when the boats were ready, Bhavishya happened to be away making a religious offering, and Bandhu repeated his old trick Heedless of every one's protests, he set sail carrying away with him the bride and the wealth of his brother

The story now begins to suffer in interest Bandhu made unsuccessful overtures to Bhavishyānurūpā, his brother's wife Ultimately, he reached Gajapura, passed off the lady as his wife, and the wealth as his own, and received great honours from the king Only Kamalā, Bhavishya's mother, was disconsolate as her son was not among those who had returned

The king of the Yakshas, however, brought Bhavishya to Gajapura in his aerial car The hero met his mother, and sought justice from the king The king wanted to punish the perfidious brother, Bandhu, but forgave him at the instance of his magnanimous brother The guilty all being forgiven, the king, to crown the general feeling of reconciliation, offered his daughter Sumitrā, to Bhavishya

The prince of Poyanapura, in the meantime, marched on Gajapura The king of Gajapura offered resistance.

his army led by Bhavishya And in the battle that ensued, the king was victorious owing to the valour of the hero The conqueror was appointed *Yuvarāja* by the king This was, perhaps, the closing incident of the story as it originally stood before a Jain author retouched it Bhavishya and his wife went to Tilakadvīpa, where a sage explained to them the principles of Jainism, and recounted the past lives of Bhavishya The hero, thereupon, renounced the world

Hemachandra has preserved several quotations from the Apabhramśa literature of the earlier centuries If these quotations are any indication, the literature of the time was mythological, religious, didactic, erotic and heroic The elegant phrase and the picturesque image so often found in these verses indicate a well-developed literature

HEROIC

Look at my lord, he has been described as the breaker of the temples of elephants gone wild in a hundred battles ¹³

Oh friend, it is just as well that my lord has been killed in the battle Had he come home vanquished, I should have felt ashamed before my friends ¹⁴

On the field of battle where arrows destroy arrows and swords cut swords, my husband cuts his way through a crowd of warriors ¹⁵

13 PV, IV 345 1

સગર-સર્પેહિ જુ વણિઅડ, દેક્લુ અમ્હારા કન્તુ ।
અઈમત્તહેં ચત્તઙ્કસહેં, ગય કુમ્મઈ દારન્તુ ॥

14 PV, IV 351 1

મલ્લા હુઆ જુ મારિઆ, બહિણી મહારા કન્તુ ।
લજ્જેજ્જન્તુ વયસિઅહુ, જઈ માગ્ગા ઘરુ એન્તુ ॥

15 PV, IV 357 1

જાંહિ કપ્પિજ્જઈ સરિણ સરુ, છિજ્જઈ લગિણ લગ્ગુ ।
તંહિ તેહઈ મહ-ઘહ-નિવહિ, કન્તુ પયાસઈ મગ્ગુ ॥

Dear friend, my husband when he is angry destroys his enemies with his hands as well as his weapons ¹⁶

When both of us have gone to the field of battle, who will doubt victory? And who will seize the Goddess of Death by the hair and live? ¹⁷

Cowards say thus, "We are but few, while enemies are many" Look at the sky, young lady How many are there to give moonlight? ¹⁸

If a man cannot lay down life in defence of honour he should leave the country He should not wander about with the finger of the wicked pointed at him ¹⁹

DIDACTIC

The ocean keeps grass on the surface and jewels at the bottom, so too, the master abandons his good servants and honours the wicked ones ²⁰

Merits do not beget fame, but may beget wealth A lion is not valued while an elephant costs lakhs People get the fruits they are destined to receive ²¹

16 PV, IV 358 1

कन्तु महारज हलि सहिए, निच्छइँ रूसइ जासु।

अत्थिहिँ सत्थिहिँ हत्थिहिँबि, ठाउ बि फडइ तामु॥

17 PV, IV 370 3

पइँ मइँ बेहिँ बि रण-गर्याहिँ, को जयसिरि तक्केइ।

केसहिँ लेप्पिणु जम-धारिणि, भण सुहु को थक्केइ॥

18 PV, IV 376 1

अम्हे थोवा रिउ बहुअ, कायर एम्ब भणन्ति।

मुद्धि निहालहिँ गयण-यलु, कइ जण जोण्ह करन्ति॥

19 PV, IV 418 4

माणि पणहुइ जइ न तणु, तो देसडा चइज्ज।

मा दुज्जण-कर-पल्लवेहिँ, दसिज्जन्तु भमिज्ज॥

20 PV, IV 334 1

सायर उप्परि तणु धरइ, तलि धल्लइ रयणाइँ।

सामि सुभिच्चु बि परिहरइ, समाणेइ खलाईँ॥

21 PV, IV 335 1

गुणहिँ न सपइ कित्ति पर, फल लिहिआ भुज्जन्ति।

केसरि न लहइ बोद्धिअ बि, गय लक्खेँ घेप्पन्ति॥

People take fruits from trees, but cast off bitter leaves
But great trees, like good men, bear those leaves on their
laps ²²

A wicked person, falling from a great height, destroys
himself and others even as a boulder, rolling down from
the top of a mountain, crushes others ²³

Very rare, indeed, in this Kali age, is the man who
hides his own virtues and reveals those of others I pay
my homage to that good man ²⁴

To whom is life not dear? Who has no love of money?
When time comes, the great consider both of them con-
temptible as grass ²⁵

The fire under the ocean does not care whether the
waters are dried up Is it not enough that it keeps on
burning even in water? ²⁶

EROTIC

The body had not met his body The lips did not
touch his lips Even as I was drinking in his lotus face
the meeting came to an end ²⁷

22 PV, IV 336 1

वच्छहे गृण्हे फलई जणु, कडु-पल्लव वज्जेइ ।
तो वि महद्दुमु सुअणु जिवाँ, ते उच्छङ्गि धरेइ ॥

23 PV, IV 337 1

दूरुड्ढाण पडिउ खलु, अप्पणु जणु मारेइ ।
जिह गिरि-सिद्धुँ पडिअ सिल, अन्नु वि चूर करेइ ॥

24 PV, IV 338 1

जो गुण गोचइ अप्पणा, पयडा करइ परस्सु ।
तसु हउँ कलि-जुगि दुल्लहहोँ, बलि किज्जउँ सुअणस्सु ॥

25 PV, IV 358 2

जीघिउ कासु न बल्लहउँ, धणु पुणु कासु न इट्ठु ।
दोण्णि वि अवसर-निवडिअइ, तिण-सभ गणइ विसिट्ठु ॥

26 PV, IV 365 2

सोसउ म सोसउ च्चिअ उअही बडवानलस्स कि तेण ।
ज जलइ जले जलणो आएण वि कि न पज्जत्त ॥

27 PV, IV 365 2

अङ्गहि अङ्गु न मिलिउ हलि, अहरेँ अहर न पत्तु ।
पिअ जोअन्तिहे मुह-कमलु, एम्बइ सुरउ समत्तु ॥

Why cannot this young lady see further by the light of the moon, when she can see her hand in the darkness by means of the rays issuing from her face?²⁸

What pity can these breasts have for others, when they come out bursting their own heart? Men, take care of yourselves The breasts of maidens are ruthless²⁹

If she loves me, she will be dead by now, and if she be still alive, she has no love for me In any way I have lost my wife Why do you thunder, you wicked cloud?³⁰

Oh bee, don't make a buzzing noise in this forest Don't lament as you look in that direction The Mālātī creeper whose separation has brought you to death is in another country³¹

My heart has been captured by you, you have been taken in by her, she dances to the tune of another O beloved, what can I do? What canst thou? It is just like one fish swallowing another³²

During the Chālukyan period, several Jain *sādhus* composed prayers and religious legends in Apabhramśa Most of these religious compositions were adaptations from the Prakrit which had long ceased to be understood by the

28 PV, IV 349 1

निअ-मुह-करहिँ धि मुद्ध कर, अन्धारइ पडिपेक्खइ ।

ससि-मण्डल-चन्दिमएँ पुणु, काई न दूरे देक्खइ ॥

29 PV, IV 350 2

फोडेन्ति जे हियडउँ, ताहँ पराई कवण घृण ।

रक्खेज्जहु लोअहो अप्पणा, बालहेँ जाया विसम थण ॥

30 PV, IV 367 1

जइ ससणेही तो मुइअ, अह जीधइ निन्नेह ।

बिहि वि पयारेहिँ गइअ, धण किं गज्जहि खल मेह ॥

31 PV, IV 368 1

भमर म रुणझणि रण्णडइ, सा दिसी जोइ म रोइ ।

सा मालइ देसन्तरिअ, जसु तुहुँ मरहि विओइ ॥

32 PV, IV 370 2

महु हिअउँ तई ताए तुहुँ, स धि अन्नं विनडिज्जइ ।

पिअ काई करउ हउँ काई तुहुँ, मच्छे मच्छु गिलिज्जइ ॥

ordinary people When the *sādhus* at the court of Pātan, who formed the aristocracy among the Jain *sādhus*, devoted themselves to Sanskrit, their humble co-workers continued to cater for the needs of the masses in their own language But even their language soon ceased to develop on independent lines Those who made use of Apabhramsa looked for inspiration to the *sādhus* who employed Sanskrit, and such fragments as have come down to us show that Apabhramśa literature flourished in the twelfth century on the wealth of expression and the grace of style furnished by Sanskrit masterpieces

The following extracts from Somaprabha's *Kumārapālapiṭibodha* will suffice to give an idea of the lines of progress which Apabhramśa followed

Eloquent with sweet notes of the cuckoo, Spring comes to the earth like unto a bard of the great king, Love, like a warrior proud of his victorious might ³³

Seeing the Sun taking in his arms (Kara=rays and hands) Dame North, Dame South sighed Malaya breezes The sylvan goddess, covered by reddish new leaves, glows, as if dressed in red apparel, in the arms of her lover, Spring ³⁴

The fresh blossoms of mango trees sparkle with swarms of black bees, as if the flames of love were emitting a stream of smoke ³⁵

33 KPS, p 38

अह कोइल-कुल-रव-मुहलु, भुवणि वसतु पयट्टु ।
भट्टु व मयण-महा-निबह, पयडिअ-विजय-मरट्टु ॥

34 KPS, p 38

सुह पलोइवि कत-कर, उत्तर-दिसी आसत्तु ।
नीसासु व दाहिण-दिसह, मलय-समीह पवत्तु ॥
काणण-सिरि सोहइ अरुण-नव-पल्लव-परिणद्ध ।
न रत्तसुय-पावरिय, महु-पिययम-सबद्ध ॥

35 KPS, p 38

सहयारिहि मजरि सहहि, भ्रमरे-समूह-सणाह ।
जालाउ व भयणानलह, पसरिय-धूम-पवाह ॥

Hemachandra has quoted two verses from a lost *Muñjarāsa* Merutunga has given some more, and has also based *Muñjaprabandha*, in his *Prabandhachintāmanī*, upon it. Evidently, it was a popular poem of the eleventh century describing the adventures of Muñja Prithivīvallabha the king of Mālwa (c 974-996). Its sentiments were unsophisticated and its language was based on popular idioms. Perhaps it was what Hemachandra calls a *grāmya mahākāvya*.

Muñja, the gay lover and the indomitable conqueror, travels every night twelve *yojanas* to meet a lady-love. Later, his passion cools down, and she addresses him thus —

‘Muñja, the bond of love is already loose. Fool, don’t you know that the thunders of Āshāḍha are already heard, and soon the roads will be unfit (for your dromedary to travel)?’³⁶

‘As you leave my arms, so do I leave yours. Where is the fault? But if you leave my heart, I shall know that Muñja is wroth with me.’³⁷

‘The water-maiden bears up life by kissing her own hands—the hands which drank the crystal clear water in which the beloved Muñja was reflected.’³⁸

Muñja carries on a life-long war with king Tailappa of Karnātaka. Against the advice of his minister, Rudrāditya, he crosses the Godāvarī, is defeated and captured by Tailappa. Tailappa’s sister Mrinālavatī, a widow, falls in love with Muñja. While both are looking in a mirror, the elderly widow bewails her grey hair.

36 PC, p 21 n 19

मुञ्च षडल्ला दोरडी, पेक्खिसि न गमारि ।

असाहि घण गज्जीइ, चिक्खलि होसेज्बारि ॥

37 PV, IV 439 3

बाह् विछोडवि जाहि तुहुँ, हउं तेवँइ को दोसु ।

हिअअ-ट्टिउ जइ नीसरहि, जाणउँ मुञ्च सरोसु ॥

38 PV, IV 439 2

रक्खइ सा विस-हारिणी, बे कर चुम्बिबि जीउ ।

पडिबिम्बिअ-मुजालु जलु, जेहि अडोहिउ पीउ ॥

Muñja says, "Mrinālavatī, do not weep over departed youth Sugarcandy, even if broken into a thousand pieces, will taste sweet"³⁹

Efforts are being made by Muñja's friends to rescue him from the subterranean cell in which he is kept Muñja insists on taking Mrinālavatī with him She, afraid of losing her lover if they go to Dhārā, informs her brother about the plan, and it is frustrated by Tailappa

'Men are but fools who confide in women with their hundred moods, sixty minds and thirty-two hearts'⁴⁰

Tailappa forces Muñja to beg from door to door The poet says

'Why did you not die by fire or string? Why did you not become a heap of ashes? Today Muñja, tied to a string, is taken from house to house like a dancing monkey'⁴¹

While begging, Muñja calls upon the spirit of his departed minister who had advised him against crossing the Godāvari

'Rudrāditya, now in heaven, unattended I stand, deprived of my elephants, chariots, horses and men Call me to you, I stand with my face towards you'⁴²

A proud damsel contemptuously gives him when to drink in a cup made of dry leaves Muñja says

'Simple-hearted damsel' Do not turn away in pride, seeing me with a cup of leaves in my hand Muñja was

39 PC, p 23, 1 6

મઝ્જુ ભગઈ મુળાલવઈ, જુલ્લુ ગયડ ન જૂરિ ।
જઈ સવ્કર સયલખડ થિય, તોઈ સ મીંઠી ચરિ ॥

40 PC, p 23, 1 15

સડ ચિત્તહ સડઠી મળહ, બત્તીસડા હિયાહ ।
અમ્મી તે નર ઢંડસી, જો વીસસઈ તિયાહ ॥

41 PC, p 23, 1 17

શોલી તુટ્ટવિ કિ ન મૂડ, કિ હૂડ ન છારહ પુઝ્જુ ।
હિણ્ડઈ દોરી દોરિયડ, જિમ મઝ્જુડુ તિમ મુઝ્જુ ॥

42 PC, p 23, 1 23

ગય ગય રહ ગય તુરય ગય, પાયવ્કડા નિ ભિચ્ચ ।
સગદિઠય કરિ મન્તળડ, મહુતા રહાઈચ્ચ ॥

once the master of fourteen hundred and six elephants but now he has lost them all '43

Mrinālavatī offers alms to Muñja

Muñja says "Mrinālavatī, if wisdom after the event is the same as before it, no one would be overcome by calamity" 44

Mrinālavatī replies

'When luck turned, even the ten-headed king (Rāvana) the master of seas and the lord of the forts of Lankā, was destroyed Therefore, Muñja, do not grieve' 45

Ultimately Muñja meets death under the feet of Talappa's elephant 46

The language of this poem approximates to the earliest specimen of Old Gujarātī found in the works of the twelfth century The *deśabhāṣā* of the people Old Gujarātī, was spoken from about 1100, or perhaps, earlier

43 PC, p 24, 1 1

भोली मुन्धि म गवु करि, पिक्खिचि पडुख्याई ।

चउदह सइ छहुत्तरइ, मुञ्जह गयह गयाइ ॥

44 PC, p 24, 1 15

जा मति पच्छइ सम्पज्जइ, सा मति यहिली होइ ।

मुञ्च भणइ मुणालवइ, विघन न वेढइ कोइ ॥

45 PC, p 23, 1 21

सायरु षा(खा)इ लकु गहु, गढवइ दस सिर राउ ।

भग्ग-ष(ख)इ सो भज्जि गउ, मुज म करसि विसाउ ॥

46 My novel *Prithvivallabha* is based on these sources

CHAPTER VI SOMEŚVARA AND HIS TIMES

Yasahpāla (c 1174)—*Moharāja—Parājaya—Somaprabha* (1185) — *Kumārapālāpratibodha* — Political changes (1179-1297) — Viradhavala, Vastupāla, and Tejapāla — Vastupāla as patron of learning—Somesvara (1194-1254)—*Kīrtikaumudī—Surathotsava—Ullāgharāghava—Prahādāna* (1164-1209) *Pārtha Parākrama—Vastupāla's Naranārāyana—Arīsimha's Sukritasamkīrtana—Balabhadra's Vasantavilāsa—Jayasimha's Hammāramādamardana* (1222)—Udayaprabha — Subhata — Medical works—The artistic value of the literature

ON the death of Kumārapāla, his nephew Ajayapāla (1174-76) succeeded to the throne, but not without combating a conspiracy in which some of Hemachandra's pupils were involved. He was not amenable to their influence as was his uncle before him, and later Jain authors had their revenge by attributing to him vices of which contemporary records absolve him.

I

Yasahpāla, a Jain *Modha Vanik* occupying a high position in the king's service, composed an allegorical drama *Moharājaparājaya*, celebrating the supposed conversion of Kumārapāla to Jainism. The drama was composed at Kumāra-vihāra at Thārāpada, modern Tharāda, near Pālanpur¹. The drama, except for Kumārapāla, Hemachandra and, perhaps, the court jester, contains allegorical characters, and is a good specimen of latter-day literary performances. Yasahpāla's style is simple and delightful, but lacks the classical touch. In technique, incident and human interest his work is decidedly inferior to that of Rāmachandra.

1 *Moharājaparājaya* (GOS, Baroda, 1918), p 2

यदद्य महमण्डलकमलामुखमण्डनकर्पूरपत्राङ्कुरथारापद्मपुरपरिष्कारश्रीकुमार
बिहारक्रोडालङ्कारश्रीवीरजिनेश्वरयात्रामहोत्सवप्रसङ्गतमस्तोक सामाजिकलोक
कस्यापि निस्तुषरसोपनिषन्निस्स्यन्दिनो रूपकस्याऽभिनयदर्शनेन परमप्रमोदसंपदं
संप्रापयेति ।

Jñānāpana, the spy sent to report on Moha, Delusion, comes to king Kumārapāla and reports that Moha has successfully besieged the city of 'Man's mind'. Its king, Vivekachandra, the Moon of Discrimination, has fled, taking his wife and his daughter, Kripāsundarī, Compassion, with him. One of Kumārapāla's queens, Kirtimañjarī, Garland of Fame, with her brother Pratāpa, Valour, is also reported as thinking of going over to Moha, as the king had fallen under the influence of a Jain *sādhu*.

In Act II, Kumārapāla sees Kripāsundarī, and falls in love with her. The queen, Rājyaśrī, Royalty, is angry with the king, and the king asks to be forgiven. In Act III, Punyaketu, the Banner of Merit, conceals himself behind the statue of a goddess, and making believe that the goddess is speaking, prevails upon Rājyaśrī not only to give up her wrath, but to send an offer for Kripāsundarī's hand. But when the offer is sent, Viveka consents only on condition that the seven vices are banished from the kingdom, and that the king abolishes the practice of confiscating the estate of men dying without male issue. The king agrees to the conditions and forgoes the property of a dead millionaire who, however, turns up with a new bride in an aerial car. In Act IV, gambling, flesh-eating, drinking, slaughter, theft and adultery are banished in spite of the plea that they bring in revenue. In Act V the king, armed by Hemachandra with his *Yogaśāstra*, wins a victory over Moha.

Moharājaparājaya contains materials for reconstructing the life and splendour of Pātan and its merchants, 'whose wealth was the envy of emperors'. An interesting episode refers to the act of Kumārapāla in abrogating the law whereby the estate of a deceased man leaving a widow but no son was escheated to the crown. When the king is informed that a millionaire, Kubera, has died and that his vast wealth has lapsed to him under the law, he feelingly expresses himself thus:

'What policy is it which entitles wicked kings to take a dead man's wealth, collected by him in high hopes, after a long struggle, and with a multitude of worries? The sinners who

snatch away the loim from a weeping woman may not have any compassion, but have they no sense of shame?"²

Again, when he finds that the relatives of the deceased will not enter his house before the king's servants take possession of his wealth under the law, he said

'Afraid of the king, the relatives of a person dying sonless cannot even perform his obsequies. The members of his family, crying with grief, are made miserable by the king's servants who, more ruthless than the servants of Death, are busy searching for wealth'³

These verses throw light on a custom then in vogue and on the sentiments which ruled Kumārapāla's conduct. A court receiver in an administration suit filed on the death of a man under modern law, has scarcely improved upon these ancient ways of king's men.

In Yaśahpāla, we have the logical extension of the literary movement which Hemachandra introduced, of weaving round the kings of Pātan an atmosphere which classical *kāvya*s had created round the epic heroes. But literary inspiration had receded into the background. Siddharāja, Kumārapāla, and Hemachandra were invested with a transparently semi-mythic importance, and the classical style was unabashedly made to ply the bard's inglorious trade, or play a hand-maid to the religious zealot.

II

The next author of importance was Somaprabha, a *sādhu*. He wrote his *Kumārapālapratibodha* about 1185,

2 *Moharājaparājaya*, III 19

आशाबन्धादहह सुचिर सचित क्लेशलक्षै
केय नीतिर्नृपतिहतका यन्मृतस्व हरन्ति ।
क्रन्दन्नारीजघनवसनाक्षेपपापोत्कटाना—
मा किं तेषा हृदि यदि कृपा नास्ति तर्त्तिक त्रपापि ॥

3 *Moharājaparājaya*, III 21

कर्तुं तत्क्षणमौर्ध्वदेहिकमहो पापं भयाद्भूभुजा
निष्पुत्रस्य मृतस्य बान्धवजन. स्निग्धोऽपि नासीदति ।
क्रन्दन्तीं च कदर्थ्यते गृहजनोऽन्विष्यद्भिरन्तर्धन
धिककष्ट यमकिंकरैरिव नृपव्यापारिभिर्निष्कृपैः ॥

twelve years after Kumārapāla's death at Pātan in the *upāśraya* of Siddhapāla, Śrīpāla's son. The work was read by the author to Gunachandra and two other disciples of Hemachandra.⁴ The work is principally in Prakrit and Apabhramśa, with some parts in Sanskrit. The author sets out his object thus

'Though the lives of Hemachandrasūri and Kumārapāla are interesting from other points of view, I desire to say something about the teaching of the Jain faith only.'⁵

And faithfully does the author keep his word, for the work is a series of sermons on Jain vows supposed to have been delivered by Hemachandra to Kumārapāla, and gives an exaggerated account of how the latter carried them into practice. This lengthy work is dreary and devoid of any literary or historical value. It is useful only as a landmark. It shows how, within two decades, the Jain *sādhu* canonised Hemachandra and Kumārapāla, and absorbed them so completely in their religious literature that they ceased to be looked upon as men. Idolatry, in literature as in life, finds a fertile soil in India, and ruins the literary gifts of many who would otherwise be noteworthy writers.

The author's other works are *Sumatināthacharita*, a religious work, *Sūktimuktāvali*, a collection of didactic verses, and *Śatārthakāvya*, a single stanza which the poet himself interprets as having a hundred meanings.⁶ None of these are of any literary value.

A remarkable work is *Pañchākhyāna* by Pūrnabhadra (1199). It is a revised version of the *Pañchatantra* of Vishnuśarman. This edition, prepared by the *sādhu* at

⁴ KPS, Intr. p. iii, also pp. 477-8

⁵ KPS, p. 3

जइ वि चरिय इमाण मणोहर अन्थि बहुयमन्न पि ।

तह वि जिणधम्म-पडिबोध-बधुर कि पि जपेमि ॥

⁶ The stanza reads

कल्याणसारसवितानहरेक्षमोह

कान्तारवारणसमानजयाद्यदेव ।

धर्मार्थकामदमहोदयवीरधीर

सोमप्रभावपरमागभसिद्धसूरे ॥

the instance of a minister of Jhālor, has enabled modern scholars to restore this valuable contribution of India to the literature of the world ⁷

III

Ajayapāla died in 1176, and was succeeded by his infant son, Bāla Mūlarāja, who died about 1178. During this period Mahmūd, or Shihāb-ud-dīn Ghorī, invaded Gujarāt, but its seasoned army, led by the queen-mother, Nāikādevī, drove back the invader.

About 1179 the throne of Pātan came to be occupied by Bhīma II. He styled himself Abhinava Siddharāja,⁸ but chroniclers have dubbed him *Bholo*, the Simpleton. The feudatories revolted against his authority, but were soon suppressed by Arnorāja Vāghelā, a Chālukya of Dholka, who threw his weight on the side of his king. Arnorāja's son, Lāvanyaprasāda, or Lavanaprasāda, whom Bhīma appointed a dictator,⁹ followed in his father's footsteps and, with the assistance of his son Viradhavala, consolidated the authority of Pātan. Aided by Someśvara, Vastupāla and Tejahpāla he made a supreme effort to keep dissolving Gujarāt together.

Both the Vāghelās, father and son, held their court at Dholka. Under their strong rule, the kingdom again became powerful. Except for an unsuccessful invasion in 1194 by a Muslim army headed by Kutb-ud-dīn Aibak, Gujarāt was happy. In 1242 Bhīma, who had outlived three generations of viceregents, died, and Viradhavala's son Viśaladeva formally occupied the throne of Pātan. During his vigorous reign of nineteen years, he revived

7 cf Hertel, *Pañchatantra* (Cambridge, Mass, 1908), Preface, p. xiii f, Winternitz, *GIL*, III, p. 288f, De HSL, p. 89f.

8 cf Patān Grant of Bhīma II dated A. D. 1199 (*IA*, XI, p. 71).

9 cf *Lekhapaddhati* (GOS, 1925), p. 25, which shows that the treaty with the Yādava king was effected between Simhana the Yādava king, on the one hand and Lāvanyaprasāda on the other, without reference to Bhīma II. Lāvanyaprasāda is mentioned as महामण्ड-लेखराराणकश्रीलावण्यप्रसाद.

the golden prime of Jayasīṃha Siddharāja, and assumed, with some justification, the dignity of Mahārājādhirāja. He was the last great Hindu king of Gujarāt.

On his death in c. 1261, his throne was occupied by Arjuna up to c. 1275 and by Sāranga from 1275 to 1296, and by Karna, popularly known as *ghelo* or crazy, from c. 1297 to 1304. After Viśaladeva's death, petty wars destroyed the power of Pātan, which soon came to rule over only a small part of North Gujarāt and Kāthiāwār. In or about 1297, Ulugh Khān, the brother of Sultan Alā-ud-dīn Khiljī, occupied Pātan, sacked the temple of Somanātha and laid waste the country. The end of the thirteenth century saw the end of self-governed Gujarāt.

The period from c. 1200 to 1250, when the great Vāghelās presided over the destinies of the country, represented half a century of great activity in the fields of both conquest and literature. Lavanaprasāda, Viṛadhavala, and Viśaladeva were warriors, administrators and patrons of literature. They also knew how to choose their servants well and wisely. About c. 1220 Viṛadhavala invited the two brothers, Vastupāla and Tejahpāla, sons of a Jain merchant, Āśārāja, to become ministers of State. Rich and religiously disposed, they soon proved to be great warriors and statesmen. Jain, Hindu and even Muslim shrines shared their generosity. They erected temples and patronised art, their temples at Ābu being monuments of Indian art. Vastupāla was married to Lalitādevī, Tejahpāla to Anupadevī. Both ladies assisted the ministers in their work and were held in great esteem. The statesmanship and valour of the brothers gave to Gujarāt its last *Mahārājādhirāja* in Viśaladeva. Vastupāla died in c. 1240, Tejahpāla in 1248. Both retained their power and the confidence of their sovereign till the last.

Vastupāla was decidedly the greater of the two. His personality, statesmanship, heroism and munificence evoked a chorus of literary praise. Someśvara, the family priest of the royal Chālukyas, composed works in his honour, and a host of other literary men followed this

example Many poets have been mentioned in contemporary works as being under his protection The minister appreciated and encouraged literature He established three libraries at a cost of eighteen crores of rupees, procured for the poets the manuscripts of literary masterpieces, and helped them in the preservation of their works ¹⁰ The poets repaid their debt well They gave immortality to his life and works

IV

Someśvara (c 1179-1262) was the leading poet of Vastupāla's court He was the family priest of the kings of Gujarāt, a direct descendant of Sola, the priest of Mūlarāja, and the grandson of Āmiga who officiated as a priest to Siddharāja His father, Kumāra, was a physician as well, and cured Ajayapāla of his wounds Someśvara has left two *mahākāvyas*, *Kīrtikaumudī* and *Surathotsava*, one drama, *Ullāgharāghava*, *Rāmaśataka*, and two *Prasastis*, one of which has not yet been found

Kīrtikaumudī, which served as a model to many contemporary *kāvyas*, had Vastupāla as its hero, and represents a further stage in the evolution of the movement which, as we saw, could be traced to Hemachandra's *Dvyāśraya* The audience loved to look back proudly upon the time of Siddharāja and Kumārapāla, particularly as Lavanaprasāda and Viradhavala were trying to restore Pātan to its former glory

Someśvara was an ardent admirer of Kālidāsa and looked upon *Raghuvamśa* as his model

'Kālidāsa was born a poet, and he sang Śrī Rāma's life It was a mixture of sugar and milk' ¹¹

Among the latter day poets, he mentioned Māgha, Bhāravi, Bāna, Dhanapāla, Bilhana, Hemachandra, Nilakantha, Prahlādana, Narachandra, Vijayasena, Subhata,

10 Cf *Naranārāyamānanda* (GOS, 1916), intr pp vii-viii

11 KK, 1 12

कालिदासः कविर्जातः श्रीरामचरितस्य यत्।

स एष शर्करायोगं पयसः समपद्यत ॥१२॥

Yaśovīra and Vastupāla, the last six of these were his contemporaries

The poet describes the city of Pātan 'the house of Śrī', its fort and its gardens where damsels came to play, the chants of its Brāhmanas, the songs of its women, the eulogies of its bards, its houses which were white as snow, its palaces in which luxury reigned, and the sacrificial smoke which, like the Yamunā, rose skywards to join the heavenly Gangā. The city outshone all the cities of traditional fame. The poet then describes the river, the temples comparable to the Himālaya, the banners of the temples 'so high as to protect even Aruna, the Sun's charioteer, from his master's fiery rays', the roads crowded with elephants and horses. The women also come in for their share of praise

'Wherever the women move, undulating with grace, the eyes of the gallants follow like their maid-servants. Those who are looked at by the women with sidelong glances, are smitten by the god of love, who, though bodiless, assumes a body. Here, Brahmā created women of matchless beauty, and yet their beauty was matched by its reflection in the bejewelled wall.'¹²

In canto II the poet gives a short history of the kings of Pātan, beginning with Mūlarāja. Siddharāja is rightly given the central place. Lavanaprasāda's dream is then described. Gurjara Rājyalakshmī, the royal dignity of Gurjara, appears to him, 'a goddess in the very image of a full-moon night, her face white as the moon, a white mark on her face, in white clothes, a white garland in her hand.'¹³ She laments the downfall of Pātan, weeps over her vanished glory and departed heroes

12 KK, I 68-70

यत्र यत्र प्रसर्पन्ति सलीलं यन्मृगीदृश ।
दासीव दृष्टिरन्वेति तत्र तत्र विलासिनाम् ॥६८॥
वीक्षिता बलितग्रीवं तन्वीभिर्यत्र केऽपि ये ।
मन्ये व्यावर्तितगणेन तेऽनङ्गणेनापि ताडिता ॥६९॥
रूपेणाप्रतिमा काता यत्र धात्रा कृता. किल ।
तथापि प्रतिमास्तासा सजाता रत्नभित्तिषु ॥७०॥

13 KK, II 89-90

तावत्पुरं कामपि वामनेत्रा राकामिवाऽऽकारवतीमपश्यम् ॥८९॥
श्वेताशुतुल्यं वदनं बहन्तीं श्वेतांशुका श्वेतविलेपनां ताम् ।
श्वेतां कराग्रे दधतीं च मालामालोक्य बालामतिविस्मितोऽस्मि ॥९०॥

'Here darkness was unknown, for the scions of the line of Mūlarāja spread their lights all around But now a light was not to be found even at night In the city, which once resounded with drums at night, only the howl of jackals is now heard Then, the lake bloomed with the lotus-faces of young damsels, now, it helplessly sheds tear-drops as the wind blows over it'¹⁴

She exhorts Lavanaprasāda to win back her departed glory

The dream vanishes, and the hero sends for his son, and his priest, the poet The poet explains the meaning of the dream and recommends the appointment of a good minister

In canto III, the family of Vastupāla comes in for a highly eulogistic tribute The king appoints Vastupāla as his minister (canto IV) The minister takes charge of Khambhāt and is faced with an invasion from the South Śankha, king of Lāta, also sends a message threatening to march on the city (canto V) The poet then deals with Vastupāla's war with Śankha and celebrates his patron's victory in high-flown phrase (canto VI) He sings the beauties of Khambhāt in the traditional manner of *kāvya*s and narrates Vastupāla's conversation with his poets (canto VII) Then follows a description of moon-rise (canto VIII), of the daily life of the minister and (canto IX), of his pilgrimage to Śatruñjaya, Gīrnār and Prabhāsa

Someśvara's diction has both grace and lucidity When he has something new to say, he rises above the wearisome and degenerate imitation of classic models The *Kāvya* had become rigid and lifeless The decadent taste of the pandits perpetuated the bondage of conventions as to form, style and expression which were no longer living interpretations of life and, like all worn-out conventions,

14 KK, II 101-3

या मूलराजान्वयजातराजतेजोभिरासीद् विरमत्तमस्का ।
निशागमे साम्प्रतमुद्धसाया तस्या न दीपोऽपि नरेन्द्रपुर्याम् ॥१०१॥
निरन्तर सञ्चरता गजाना या डिण्डिमैरुडुमरा ध्वनद्भि ।
एकाकिनी रात्रिषु गर्जराणा सा पूत्करोतीव शिवास्तैः पूः ॥१०२॥
क्रीडावतीना नगराङ्गनाना वक्त्रैः सदा यत्र सरोजसत्ता ।
सरस्तदश्रूणि किरत्यनाथ वातास्तपाथ कणकैतवेन ॥१०३॥

they stifled the soul that accepted them. From the historical point of view the work is invaluable. The author had first-hand knowledge of events connected with the Chālukya kings, and was free from any propagandist zeal. In the first three cantos he sets men and events in a fairly accurate perspective, and is a fairly reliable guide for correcting the faulty perspective of Jain works.

His next *Mahākāvya*, *Surathotsava*, deals with the episode, from the *Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa*, of king Suratha who reconquered his lost kingdom by the favour of the goddess Chandī. His drama *Ullāgharāghava*, in eight acts, is based on the *Rāmāyana*. It was performed before the temple of Śrī Krishna at Dvārakā. The author introduces fine sentiments and incidents into the drama to retouch the character of Rāma. The modesty of Rāma, for instance, is represented with skill in the stanza which he addresses to his father when people celebrate his victory over Paraśurāma.

"As prescribed by destiny, I broke the old bow of Sankara Renukā's son (Parasurāma) conceded to me a great deal in the field of battle, treating me as a child. But the people regard my breaking the bow as due to my valour only out of their affection for me. You must, therefore, stop them from doing so. It is improper to treat the great with contempt without reason."

V

Prahlādana, whom Someśvara describes as 'the born son of Sarasvatī and the husband of Jayaśrī, the goddess of victory',¹⁶ was a younger brother of Dhārāvarsha, the Paramāra ruler of Chandrāvati, and lived between 1164

15 *Ullāgharāghava*

भग्न जीर्णं त्रिनयनधनुर्यन्मया दैवयोगा-
द्यत्ससोढं शिशुरिति रणे रेणुकेयेन चाहम् ।
लोक. प्रीत्या तदपि किल मे पौखं भाषमाणे
वार्य. कार्या न खलु महतां गर्हणां निर्निमित्तम् ॥

16 KK, 1 20

श्रीप्रह्लादनदेवोऽभूद् द्वितयेन प्रसिद्धिमान् ।
पुत्रत्वेन सरस्वत्या पतित्वेन जयश्रियः ॥२०॥

and 1200 He was reputed to be versed in different philosophies He was a warrior and founded the city Prahlaḍanpura, modern Pālanpur Of his works, only *Pārthaparākrama*, a drama of the *vyāyoga* type (military spectacle), and a few verses have come to light This one-act drama, exhibiting *dīpta rasa* or the sentiment of excitement, is based on the incident in the *Mahābhārata* of Arjuna recovering the cows of King Virāta from the Kauravas

Vastupāla himself, under the name of Vasantapāla conferred upon him by Someśvara and other poets, has left a *mahākāvya*, called *Naranārāyaṇānanda*, in sixteen cantos dealing with the episode of Arjuna eloping with Subhadrā, Śrī Kṛishna's sister Coming as it did from so great a man and so generous a patron of poets, it naturally evoked great contemporary praise According to *Alamkāramahodadhī*, it improved upon Vyāsa's language,¹⁷ and not to be outdone, Someśvara called the minister the adopted son of Sarasvatī¹⁸ Merutunga called him a *Mahākavi*¹⁹ His fame travelled even outside Gujarāt But the poem is a mechanical product of the literary conventions which were in vogue all over the country Pompous *kāvyas* without true poetic inspiration or direct touch with reality were turned out in that age like factory-made articles

Arīsimha's *Sukritasamkīrtana* is a *kāvya* modelled on *Kīrtikaumudī*, but composed with less poetic skill Bāla-chandra's *Vasantavilāsa* is the third and the largest *mahākāvya* on Vastupāla, and follows the same example both in matter and style In this poem, the presiding deity of

17 *Alamkāramahodadhī* (GOS, 1942), I 12

काव्यकलाऽपि कोमलयति द्वैपायनीय वच ।

18 KK, I 29, *Naranārāyaṇānanda*, XVI, 40

वस्तुपाल-यशोवीरौ सत्य वतदेवतामुलौ ।

एको दानस्वभावोऽभूदुभयोरन्यथा कथम् ॥१ २९॥

नरनारायणानन्दो नाम कन्दो मुदामिदम् ।

तेन तेन महाकाव्य वतदेवीधर्मसूनुना ॥१६ ४०॥

19 PC, p 105

इत्यादीनि श्रीवस्तुपालमहाकवे काव्यानि स्वय कृतान्यमूनि ।

the kingdom appears in a dream to Viradhavala, and the conventional descriptions follow with mechanical precision

The messenger from Śankha who advises Vastupāla to flee adds that no one will feel disgraced by the flight of a *bania*. The minister gives an apt reply

“Messenger, it is a delusion to think that Kshatriyas alone can fight, and not a *Vanik*. Did not Ambaḍa, a *Vanik*, kill Mallikārjuna in battle? I, a *Vanik*, am well-known in the shop of the battlefield. I buy commodities—the heads of enemies—weighing them in the scales of swords, I pay the price in the form of Heaven.”²⁰

And Vastupāla proved as good as his word

Jayasīmha, a Jain *sādhū*, while living at the temple of Munisuvrata of Bhrīgukachchha between 1222 and 1236 composed *Hammīra-madamardana*, a play, in which is celebrated the victory obtained by Viradhavala with the aid of Vastupāla over the forces of some Muslim invader. The play was written to please Jayantasīmha, son of Vastupāla, and was performed at the festival of the procession of Bhīmeśvara of Khambhāt²¹. It furnishes some historical information about the event and the times, but is very inferior in style and technique to the dramas of Yaśahpāla, Rāmachandra and Someśvara. There is no individuality in the characters, no plot and no movement. The style is highly affected even if judged by the standard of his contemporaries, and the author's unbounded delight in long compounds takes away whatever little charm its perusal might otherwise afford. The mutual adulation in which Viradhavala and Vastupāla indulge at every step is unusual even for an age given to unqualified panegyrics

20 *Vasantavilāsa* (GOS, 1917), p. 43-4

क्षत्रियः समरकेलिरहस्य जानते न वणिजो भ्रम एष ।

अम्बडो वणिगपि प्रधने किं मल्लिकार्जुननृप न जघान ॥४३॥

दूत रे वणिगह रणहट्टे विश्रुतोऽसितुलया कलयासि ।

मौलिभाण्डपटलानि रिपूणा स्वर्गवेतनमयी चित्तरामि ॥४४॥

21 *Hammīramadamardana* (GOS, 1920), p. 1

श्रीभीमेश्वरस्य यात्राया. . समस्तसचिचवास्तोष्पत्तिश्रीवस्तुपाल-
कुलकाननकेलिसिंहेन श्रीमता जयन्तसिंहेन समादिष्टोऽस्मि . . . ।

Gujarāt is menaced by Turushka Hammīra aided by the Yādava Sīmhana, who can also rely upon the assistance of Samgrāma, nephew of the king of Lāta. In Act I, Vastupāla advises Viradhavala to secure the aid of the kings of Mārwar. Vastupāla's spies run to and fro between the warring kings. One of them induces Samgrāma to flee, and the minister some time later enters into a treaty with him. Mārwar is destroyed by the invading Mlechchha, Milachchhrikāra, who, however, retreats at the approach of Viradhavala. The diplomacy of Vastupāla surrounds the invader with many difficulties, and he is defeated by Viradhavala. Finally, the king goes to the temple of Siva, where the god grants a boon to the king. If the minister is properly delineated in his drama he was an astute diplomat rather than the heroic statesman described by the exuberant Someśvara. The *Vastupālatejahpāla-prasasti* of the poet follows *Kīrtikaumudī* both in form and substance.

Udayaprabha, the preceptor of Vastupāla, composed *Saṅghādhīpati Charita*, a *mahākāvya*, on the pilgrimage of Vastupāla, and *Sukṛitakīrtikallolīnī* a *kāvya* of the usual type. The author has a better style than Jayasīmha. A Brāhmana poet Subhata, has left a play called *Dūtāṅgada*. Its merits do not justify the praise which Someśvara, in his usual vein, showers on its author.²² Śrīpāla's grandson, Vijayapāla, has left a drama, *Draupadīsvayamvara*, and Amarachandra, among other works, a summary of the *Mahabharata* called *Bālabhāratakāvya*.

A few scientific works may be briefly noticed here. The versatile Hemachandra wrote *Nīghantuśeṣa*, a dictionary of medical terms. In the twelfth century, we come across a great Gujarātī physician, Soddhala, a Rāikwāl Brāhmana. His works, *Gunasaṃgraha* and *Gadani-graha* are considered to be of exceptional merit. The thirteenth century saw the works of two more physicians

22 KK, I 24

सुभटेन पदन्यासः स कोऽपि समितौ कृतः ।

येनाधुनाऽपि धीराणां रोमाञ्चो नापचीयते ॥२४॥

of eminence, Govindāchārya, a Modha Brāhmaṇa, and Yaśodhara, a Śrīgauḍa Brāhmaṇa ²³

Literature, judged from a proper artistic standard, was very poor and lifeless indeed. In this age, the authors had before them for their model either Māgha's *Śisupālavadha* or Bāna's *Kādambarī*, and looked to Kālidāsa as the ultimate source of their inspiration. But their style was wooden and often incorrect. Their fancy, unlike Kālidāsa's, was either fettered by conventional *alamkāras* and modes of expression, or performed unmeaning acrobatics which never add any beauty to the picture. Characterisation as a literary effort began and ended with a mechanical weaving of classical myths or contemporary episodes into works devoid of interest and characterised by extravagance of thought and expression. Poetry is a revelation, and these poets, tied to the apron strings of their masters, had nothing to reveal. They had no ideas to convey, no social life to depict, no deeper interpretation to offer.

²³ cf. Durgashanker Śaṣṭrī, "Gujarāṭnūn Vaidyaka Sāhitya", *Sāhitya P. Report*, Vol. V

CHAPTER VII

A RETROSPECT OF THE PERIOD

Gurjaradesa—The activities of the people—Social Life—Śaivism—Vaishnavism—Philosophic influences—Jainism—Gujarāt one with Āryāvarta—Its activities—Āryan Culture—Its Literature and life—The premature close of the period

ON the death of Viśaladeva in 1262 the brilliant period in the history of Gujarāt, which began with Jayasīma in 1094, came to an end. During this period, Sārasvata Mandala or the Sarasvatī valley which before 950 formed part of the old empire of Gurjaratrā or Gurjaradeśa became a centre of power and, with Ānarta, Lāta, Saurāshtra, Kachchha and part of north Konkana, was consolidated into one political and cultural entity under the name of Gurjarabhūmi or Gurjaradeśa. The Chālukya kings of Pātan with their triumphant arms raided diverse parts of India and succeeded in founding a powerful kingdom. For over a century they successfully repulsed the invading Muslims.

I

A new age was born with the conquest of Anahilavāda by Mūlarāja in 942 and new factors emerged which led to the foundation of Gujarāt.

1 Till 940 the region now known as Gujarāt was a part of the empire of the Gurjara emperors whose capital was Kānyakubja or Kalyānakataka.

2 Till about 1050 a considerable part of Gujarāt was part of a kingdom ruled by the Paramāra emperors from their capital, Dhārā, and except, perhaps, for a part of the Ābu region, no other part of Gujarāt was called Gurjarabhūmi, or Gurjaradeśa.

3. Till then the word Guzrāt or Gurjaratrā was applied to a region which now forms part of the modern

states of Jodhpur and Jaipur and its capital was Bazâna or Nārâyana, modern Narāna in the Jaipur State ¹

4 After 1050, Bhīmadeva Chālukya, the ruler of the Sārasvata Mandala, on the break-up of the Paramāra empire, consolidated some parts of modern Gujarāt into a compact kingdom, which was called Gurjaradeśa or Gurjarabhūmi

5 Only in 1120 Jayasīmha made Anahilavāda Paṭṭana the capital of a powerful and prosperous kingdom consisting of modern Gujarāt, Rājputāna and Mālwa

6 The word Gurjarabhūmi or Gujarāt came to be applied progressively over such parts of the region as came under the sway of the Chālukya kings of Anahilavāda Paṭṭana, as the founder of the house Mūlarāja had adopted the family title of Gurjareśvara, either by reason of his being a descendant of the Gurjara-Pratihāra emperors, or he or his father being a feudatory chief of Gurjaratrā

7 Till the conquest of Pātan by Alā-ud-dīn Khiljī in 1299 the literary languages of the region were the same as in Rājputāna and Mālwa, the dialects of each being different

8 A distinctive group-consciousness as applied to modern Gujarāt came into existence in the second quarter of the twelfth century when, under Jayasīmha Chālukya, Gujarāt acquired the tradition of power and strength, and the literary men at his court gave this same consciousness a definite shape in their literary works

9 It was, however, only on the foundation of the Sultanate of Gujarāt, in c 1299, that modern Gujarāt developed distinct political and cultural tendencies by reason of its having succumbed to the Muslim raids and, in consequence, the exchange of literary and cultural ideas with Rājputāna and Mālwa having become difficult. As a result the ways of life in Gujarāt became markedly different and the dialects of different regions developed into separate literary languages, Old Gujarātī as a distinct variety of Western Rājasthānī emerging as a separate language of Gujarāt

II

During this period, the maritime activity of Gujarāt was at its highest, its merchants being as enterprising as its kings. Large parts of the country were brought under cultivation. Cities sprang up in different places. The country grew fabulously rich.

The social progress of the people continued unchecked. The cultural and powerful communities of Rājputāna and Mālhwā came and settled in the country. All of them found an honourable place in the existing social system, and enjoyed social autonomy. Several of them, like the Osvāls, the Porvāds and the Śrīmālī, attained eminence both in the society and the state. Brāhmanas from different parts of the country also came and settled here.

The same characteristics of the people to which we have referred earlier, continued to distinguish them throughout this period. There were equal opportunities of advancement for high and low, more so here than in any other part of the country. A striking example of this feature is provided by the Jains, who slowly attained a status as high as that of the Brāhmanas in learning and politics, and as that of the Kshatriyas in war. The *sādhus* contested the Brahmanical superiority in matters cultural, though they never came near overthrowing it. They were ardent students, prolific writers, and indefatigable preachers of ethical principles especially of *ahimsā*. They opened the doors of learning to many for whom they would otherwise have remained closed. Someśvara, a Brāhmana, Prahlādana, a Paramāra Rājput, and Jain *sādhus* like Jayasimha, had, irrespective of their differing communities, a common literary training, tradition and ambition. A *Modha Vanik*, Hemachandra, was the greatest scholar of the age.

The absence of a rigid religious basis for society made the absorption or tolerance of foreign elements in the social organism easy. The Magi of Persia became the Maga Brāhmanas. On more than one occasion, Muslims were converted to Hinduism and were absorbed. Fugitives from Persia found a home in Gujarāt. Muslim traders and

mercenaries from several parts of Asia and Africa came and settled in the country, and lived peacefully with their neighbours

Gujarāt maintained its catholic traditions throughout this whole period. The social structure does not appear to have been very rigid. Caste was not so hidebound as at a later period, and inter-marriages were very frequent. Re-marriage of widows was not banned. Adult marriage appears to have been the rule. The people on the whole were spirited and happy, and for the times, cultured. Under the strong rule of Pātan, they became united and powerful and the name Gurjaradeśa, adopted for the country from its kings, gave them conscious unity. The various communities began to live a uniform life, and their culture acquired an individuality of its own. The ancient Aryan colonies were thus inspired by a tradition and a cultural self-consciousness peculiarly their own. Gujarāt was born.

III

Gujarāt, during the whole of this period, was predominantly Śaiva. The whole land even today is studded with temples of Śiva or their ruins, many of which date back to the pre-Chālukyan age. The rulers of Valabhīpura, except for one king, were devotees of Śiva, and styled themselves '*paramamāheśvara*'. Their seals bear the impress of the bull sacred to their god Somanātha. The temple of Somanātha had attained its high position as an all-India shrine under the Valabhī kings. The Chālukyas, as we saw, recognised in Somanātha their guardian deity, and so did a large number of chiefs during the whole period under review.

The Brāhmanas of Vadnagar, who came to be called Nāgaras, possessed high Brahmanical learning and were devotees of Śiva. The family priest of the Chālukyas and Vāghelās was a Brāhmana of Vadnagar. Many of them were statesmen, warriors and officers as also priests and literary men. Many of the inscriptions of the period were written by them and their influence was considerable.

The most influential form of Śaivism was the Pāśu-pata cult, founded by Lakuliśa who was born at Kāravana a few miles south of Baroda, and worshipped as the eighteenth incarnation of Śiva² The shrine of Somanātha was in the charge of priests of this cult who had a high reputation for learning

The worship of Viṣṇu, the Bhāgavata Dharma, introduced during the Gupta period, was favoured by a small section of the people We find a temple dedicated to Kṛiṣṇa at Gīrnār in 455. Ruins of a large number of such temples, erected during the period and dedicated to one or other of the incarnations of Viṣṇu, are found in North Gujarāt Hemachandra testifies to the existence of a temple of Viṣṇu in Pātan An inscription of 1074 begins with 'Om Namō Bhagavate Vāsudevāya' Hemachandra in his *Kāvyañuśāsana*, cites two verses indicating the popular Kṛiṣṇa cult of the time

"Mother, Kṛiṣṇa, while at play, ate as much earth as he could" "Is it true, Kṛiṣṇa?" "Who said it?" "Baladeva" "He is telling a lie Look into my mouth" "Open Let me

2 cf Buhler, "Cintra Prasasti of the reign of Sārangadeva", *EI*, I pp 271-87 (st 14-17), *CPSI*, p 70, Bhandarkar, "An Eklingji Stone Inscription", *JBBRAS*, XXII, pp 151-67, *Linga P* 24 124-33, *Vāyu P*, 23 217-25

भट्टारकश्रीलकुलीशमूर्त्या तप क्रियाकाडफलप्रदाता ।

अघातरद्विषमनुग्रहीतु देव. स्वय बालमृगाङ्गमौलि ॥

(Cintra Prasasti, st 14)

अनुग्रहीतु च चिर विपुत्रकानुलूकभूतानभिशापतः पितुः ।

ललाटमुर्व्या इव लाटभूषण समेत्य कारोहणमध्युवास यः ॥

(1b, st 15)

अघतेरुश्चत्वार पाशुपतव्रतविशेषचर्यार्थं ।

इह कुशिकगार्ग्यकौरुषमैत्रेया इति तदतसद ॥

(1b, st 16)

ततस्तपस्विना तेषा चतुर्द्धा जातिरु द्गता ।

भुव विभूषयामास चतुर्णवमुद्रिता ॥

(1b, st 17)

भविष्यामि तदा ब्रह्मन् लकुली नाम नामतः ॥ लिङ्ग, २४.१२९ ॥

कायावतार इत्येव सिद्धक्षेत्र च वै तदा । १३० ।

see" The mother saw the whole universe in the mouth of the child and was surprised May this Kesava protect you *

"The dark beauty of the child Krishna was reflected on Rādhā's breasts, shining as gold pots Believing the reflection to be a dark cloth, Krishna again and again attempted to remove it Seeing this, Rādhā smiled and Krishna himself was ashamed of his surprising mistake, and smiled May this Krishna be victorious "4

Someśvara in his *Kīrtikaūmudī*, bears testimony to the fact that the Jain Vastupāla worshipped both Śankara and Keśava,⁵ and, in *Surathotsava*, refers to the love of Rādhā and Krishna Viradhavala dedicated a temple to Viranārāyana

Gujarāt did not offer a good field for the intellectual activities which kept busy the great schools of Indian learning in other provinces In the ninth century, Śankarāchārya no doubt exerted a powerful Vedāntic influence over the Brāhmanas, who exercised the old popular cult like Pāsupata of its fierce rituals Rāmānuja, Madhva, Nimbārka and other scholars of less renown frequently passed through Gujarāt, which served as a corridor linking north and south, but none of them left any lasting centre of activity The influence they exerted was just

3 HK, I P 120

कृष्णेनाम्ब गतेन रन्तुमधुना मृद्वक्षिता स्वेच्छया
सत्य कृष्ण क एवमाह मुसली मिथ्याम्ब पश्याननम् ।
व्यादेहीति विकसिते शिशुमुखे माता समस्त जगद्-
दृष्ट्वा यस्य जगाम विस्मयपद पायात्स व० केशव ।

4 op cit I, p 115

कनकलशस्वच्छे राधापयोधरमण्डले
नवजलधरश्यामामात्मद्युतिं प्रतिबिम्बिताम् ।
असितसिचयप्रान्तभ्रान्त्या मुहुर्मुहुर्दृष्टिक्षिप-
ज्जयति जनितव्रीडाहासः प्रियाहसितो हरिः ॥

5 cf KK, IV 40

नानर्च भक्तिमाश्रमौ नेमौ शकरकेशवौ ॥
जैनोऽपि य सवेदाना दानाम्भः कुरुते करे ॥

enough to give Gujarāt a new religious sect and make it more catholic and tolerant

When Mūlarāja came to the throne of Pātan, Buddhism had long disappeared, and Jainism had no important following, the statements of Jain authors to the contrary notwithstanding. But the immigration of the Osvāls, Porvāds and other important communities gave Jainism an important position. During the three centuries under review, the whole of Gujarāt came to be adorned with beautiful temples erected by this small but wealthy community. It was left to Hemachandra to secure for his sect that position of dignity which till then was only reserved for the Brāhmanas. The Jain *sādhus* spread an atmosphere which made for non-violence, social equality and such social purity as abstention from meat, drink and gambling could bring.

IV

Though the local pride of Gujarāt had altered the outlook on life and evolved Gujarāt consciousness, it would be erroneous to infer that Gurjaradeśa had become a separate country in any sense. Throughout the whole period, in language and culture, it was one with Mārwar, Mālwa and Rājputāna. Ujjayinī and Mathurā continued actively to influence it. The forces making for Indian unity which were at work at the end of the Gupta period, still ruled. The only important fact to be noted, however, was that Pātan had become the most powerful city in the whole area, attracting not only power and heroism, but learning, art and culture.

Gujarāt had an art of its own, inherited from the art of old Gurjaradeśa. Muslim invaders have destroyed all but a few of the noble temples which that art had reared, but the superb art of the temples at Mt. Ābu and of the ruins at Modhera and other places had its rival at few other places in India. Solana, the architect of Vastupāla's temples at Ābu, may be justly ranked as one of the world's greatest artists.

Gujarāt had great libraries in Jain and Pāsupata monasteries. The Jain works, composed during the period, are numerous, and indicate the great intellectual activity of this sect. The works of the Brāhmanas which have come down to us, few though they are, also indicate an equally intensive activity.

Sanskrit was the language of the court and culture. It made the contact of Pātan with the culture of the country real. In fact, it made Gujarāt only a constituent of a great cultural unit. It strengthened and inspired all influences which, even as they slowly percolated to the lower strata of life, maintained intact the spirit and the form of Aryan life. The influence of the Epics, the Purānas, the Smritis, and of classical works like those of Kālīdāsa, entered deep into men's life, making ancient India a living model for the present. During the time of Kumārapāla, we find a short-lived experiment of introducing the ethical principles of *ahimsā* in the actual governance of the State. The spread of this doctrine resulted in making life more tolerant, gentle and pure. Great in war and peace, Gujarāt was no less great in its expression of the spirit of Aryan culture through the life of its people.

Sanskrit literature was assiduously cultivated. Someśvara was a poet and a man of letters. He had his literary inspiration from Kālīdāsa and Māgha. That Vasutupāla should have spent his leisure in composing a *mahākāvya*, and Prahlādana in composing a *vyāyoga* (martial drama), shows how literary traditions dominated statesmen and warriors. No doubt literary inspiration, on account of the artificial tendencies of the age, lacked vitality. *Kāvyas* had lost in dignity and self-restraint, and could ill conceal the motive which underlay the courtier-poet's literary efforts. But one noteworthy feature distinguished this literature from that which was to follow. It had the thrill of an age which knew heroism, its outlook on literature was neither morbid, nor other-worldly. The Apabhramśa and the Old Gujarātī literatures provide ample

evidence to show that life was not only heroic, but joyous and free

V

But a calamity, in its destructiveness more terrible than a cataclysm of Nature, suddenly brought this period to an abrupt end. In 1299 Muslim invaders laid waste the country and destroyed the strength, the learning, and the glory of Gujarāt

PART II

CHAPTER I

A CENTURY OF CHAOS OLD GUJARĀTĪ AND ITS EARLY LITERATURE (1297-1400)

The Khaljī occupation—The migrations—The waning influence of Sanskrit—Early literature in *desabhāshā*, Old Gujarātī—Literature in the twelfth, thirteenth and fourteenth centuries—The evolution of the language—Folksongs and *rāsa* dance—The *desī* tunes—*Rāsa* as a literary composition *Phāga* poems—*Nemināthachatushpadikā* (1269) — Somasundar (1374 1446) — *Rangasāgara Nemīphāga*—*Phāgu* by Natarshī (1439)—Prose—Tarunaprabha (1355)—*Prithvichandracharitr* (1422)—Legends of Hemachandra — *Prabandhachintāmanī* — Note A Gujarātī —Note B Evolution of Old Gujarātī

WITH the death of Vīsaladeva in 1261, the glory of Gujarāt departed, and a period of unsettled existence was followed by a century (1300-1400) of catastrophic events, which changed the face of the whole country

In 1299 Ulugh Khān, the brother of Allā-ud-dīn, invaded Gujarāt, and captured Anahilavāda Pātana, which thenceforward became a permanent camp of the army of occupation. The viceroys of the Sultans of Delhi sallied forth from it, now and again, to plunder, to destroy, and to carry fire and sword in every direction. Most of the tributary kings and grandees who had made the court of the great Vāghelā so illustrious were either put to death or forced to embrace Islam. Some stood their ground and continued to fight with grim despair.

Soon, however, the viceroys rebelled against the authority of Delhi, and the *amirs*, in their turn, against the authority of the viceroys, and, in consequence, confusion prevailed everywhere. Occasionally, the imperial presence supported by a strong army was required to bring a recalcitrant viceroy to his senses. Ultimately in 1391, Zafar Khān, son of a Rajput convert, was sent by Mahmūd Shah II to Gujarāt to bring to book Farhat-ul-Mulk, the governor of the province. Zafar Khān spread carnage wherever he went. He defeated the governor, but having conquered the country, elevated his son Mahmūd to the

sultanate of Gujarāt When Mahmūd died in 1403, Zafar Khān, with the title of Muzaffar Shah, ruled Gujarāt for a few years On his death in 1411, his grandson Ahmed Shah succeeded him and transferred the capital to the new town built on the site of Āsāwal, which he named Ahmedābād after himself

I

Before Allā-ud-dīn's invasion Gujarāt was very prosperous "Besides Cambay, the most celebrated of the cities of Hind in population and wealth," records a foreign traveller, "there are 70,000 towns and villages, all populous, and the people abounding in wealth and luxuries"¹ But during the following century, Gujarāt received neither respite nor mercy from the invaders Her shrines were desecrated, her wealth was plundered, her women were violated or kidnapped Forcible conversion was the mildest alternative offered by the invader to the children of the soil Men, women and children were sold as slaves People migrated from place to place in vain search of security Many castes, like the Khaḍāyatās, Nāgaras, Jhārolās and Modhas, now settled in different parts of Gujarāt, bear the names of the towns of North Gujarāt from which they fled at this time Priests, poets, and *sādhus* sought refuge in obscure villages, placing themselves beyond the reach of the ruthless destroyer All that the terrified people could do was to lock up their women-folk indoors, and to barricade their world behind the bulwarks of caste, *panchāyat*, and *mahājan*

The Turkish conquest of India brought about a revolutionary change After twelve centuries, royal patronage was withdrawn from Sanskrit wherever the arms of Delhi or its viceroys conquered Universities which maintained their tradition under royal patronage, were dissolved for want of support Many pandits fled to distant places and took to the life of a recluse The race of poets disappeared Devout Brāhmanas turned for support to their poverty-stricken followers in small towns and villages, and assumed the obscure rôle of family priests or *purāniks*

What was said of the sixteenth century in France could be said of this period as well. The men whose thoughts were worth preserving did not know how to write, and the men who cultivated the literary art did not think it needful that they should have any thoughts to express.

II

Learning sought popular support through the medium of Gurjara bhāshā, or Gujarātī, which was the spoken language of the people since the eleventh century.² Bilhana, the author of *Vikramāṅkadevacharita* (1088), evidently referred to it when he ridiculed Gurjaras for their incorrect speech³, and, possibly, Hemachandra had it in mind too when, in *Kāvyaṇuśāsana*, he mentioned the *grāmya* or vulgar variety possessing literature of its own as distinguished from Apabhramśa proper.⁴ Its earliest available literature, which dates back to the twelfth century, clearly indicates pre-existing literature.

From the beginning Gujarātī was distinct from Apabhramśa. For instance, many of its words were not derived from corresponding words in the older language, and its structure was fundamentally different. Under conditions created by the invasion and rule of the Muslim, it continued to evolve in unbroken continuity till the middle of the nineteenth century, when factors arising from the contact with the West introduced new elements in it. It may, however, for convenience be divided into Old Gujarātī (1100-1850) and Modern Gujarātī.

III

The characteristics of old Gujarātī —

I Sanskrit, Prākṛit and Apabhramśa belong to the class of languages known as synthetic, while Early Guja-

2 Vide Note A at the end of the Chapter

3. कक्षाबन्धं विदधति न ये सर्वदेवाविशुद्धा—
स्तद्भाषन्ते किमपि भजते यद् जुगुप्सास्पदत्वम् ।
तेषां मार्गे परिचयवशाद्दर्जित गुर्जराणां
यः सतापं शिथिलमकरोत् सोमनाथं विलोक्य ॥

4 तत्र प्रायः संस्कृतप्राकृतापभ्रंशभाषानिबद्धा महाकाव्यम् ।
..... ग्राम्यापभ्रंशभाषानिबद्धावस्कन्धकबन्धं भीमकाव्यादि ।

rāṭī from the beginning, exhibits a progressively pronounced tendency to become analytic and drop the inflections

II Early Gujarāṭī develops a phonetic change by which a double consonant is simplified and the preceding vowel lengthened. This must have been the result of a change of accent

III. The indistinctly pronounced vowel at the beginning of a word is dropped in Early Gujarāṭī

IV A definite tendency to replace the Apabhramśa form of words by its Sanskrit equivalent comes into existence, indicating that Early Gujarāṭī was developing into a literary language in supersession of earlier literary media

V About 1350 *છ* begins to be used as an auxiliary verb, and the Middle Gujarāṭī begins

VI After 1500, as Gujarāt had become a separate kingdom and Pātana was no longer a literary centre for Gujarāt as well as Rājputānā, its language began to develop new features thereabout and assumed its present shape about 1650⁵

The available literature of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries in Old Gujarāṭī includes the following typical works

- (1) *Bharateśvarabāhubalī rāsa* by Śālībhadrā (1185),
- (2) *Jambūsvāmīcharita* by Mahendra (1210),
- (3) *Revantagīrīrāsa* by Vijayasena, a preceptor of Vastupāla (c 1231),
- (4) *Nemināthachatushpadīkā* by Vinayachandra ((c 1269),
- (5) *Ārāḍhanā*, a prose note on palm leaf (1274),
- (6) *Bālāsīkshā* by Samgrāmasīmha (1280)

Many *rāsas* and prose stories of the fourteenth century are available. But the works valuable for appreciating the change in the language are

- (7) *Pratikramanabālāvabodha* by Tarunaprabha (1355), and,
- (8) *Mugdhāvabodha*, a text-book of Sanskrit grammar with explanations in Old Gujarāṭī by Kulamaṇḍana (1394)

About the same time, flourished Somasundar (1374-1446),—a very important author in the language

⁵ Vide Note A at the end of the Chapter.

IV

The earliest folk literature of the Indo-Aryans was associated with the dance called *rāsa*. Men and women, singing folk-songs, mostly of an erotic character, moved in circles to the accompaniment of appropriate rhythmic movements. Sometimes men alone, very often women by themselves, danced the *rāsa*. Mathurā was its early home, and long before the Christian era it came to be associated with Śrī Kṛṣṇa, who was believed to have invented it. The Vṛiṣṇiis, the Sātvatas and the Ābhīras, all nomadic tribes, were the first to worship the cowherd hero and invest the *rāsa* with a semi-religious significance.

The *rāsa* produced the early lyrics of the Madhyadeśa, the dialect of which was the Śaurasenī Prākṛit. It also gave birth to folk-tunes which could be sung accompanied by dancing and rhythmic movements, and predominantly influenced, if it did not create, the Sanskrit drama. Śrī Kṛṣṇa, the hero of the *rāsa* dance, the naughty cowherd boy, the ardent lover, a god of love more fascinating than Madana himself, became the centre of erotic sentiment and terminology, and popular imagination found for him a lovely bride in Rādhā.

Bhāsa (before 2nd Century B.C.) in his drama *Bāla-charita* describes the *hallīsaka* dance of Śrī Kṛṣṇa with the *gopīs*. In the early centuries of the Christian era, there was considerable folk literature of which the Tamil classic *Śilappadikāram* provides a valuable specimen. It revolves round the theme of Śrī Kṛṣṇa (Māyavan) dancing eleven kinds of dances with his consort Nappinnai (Rādhā) in the hall of the Cowherds⁶. Nappinnai is also referred to as Nilā, a sister of Śrīdāma.

Harivamśa refers to the *hallīsaka* dance of Śrī Kṛṣṇa⁷. *Bhāgavata* gives a poetic description of the *Rāsa*⁸ which therefore came to be associated with Śrī Kṛṣṇa. The *Brahma Purāna* gives a longer version, and the *Brahma-Vavarta Purāna* a still longer one with Rādhā as the

6 V. R. Ramachandra Dikshitar, *IC*, IV, pp. 267-71.

7 *Vishnuparva Adhyāya* 20.

8 *Bhāgavata P*, X, 29-33.

heroine, and several *gopīs* with specified names as her companions⁹

Rāsa also gave the people their principal festive institution. It formed the basis of *yātrā*, a kind of drama staged by amateurs at fairs and religious festivities, which persisted in spite of the disappearance of the regular drama. Later, itinerant parties of dancers, male and female, travelled from place to place staging *rāsālīlā*. The spring festival of *Holī* resembling the May-Day merriment of Old England, and Madana Utsava or Dolā Utsava, a festival in honour of the god of love, also provided occasions for *rāsa*.

Women of Gujarāt from early times have made *rāsa*, under the name of *garabo*, a special feature of many festive occasions, particularly during the first ten days of the month of Āśvin sacred to the goddess Ambā. On such occasions, women of different localities gather together and dance in a circle around a burning lamp placed in the centre of an earthen jar, or *garabo*, singing love lyrics set to popular tunes, and, as they do so, they keep time by clap of hands and with their feet. This is pre-eminently a Gujarātī institution. Śārngadhara (c 1200), in *Samgīta-ratnākara*, records the tradition that the *lāsya* dance was taught to the women of Saurāshtra by Bāna's daughter, Ushā, who learnt it from Pārvatī, the spouse of god Śankara. Hemachandra refers to *rāsaka*, and Lakshmanagani (1143) describes it thus:

Some ladies dance *rāsa* giving time-beats with hands high and low, some smile as their hands move in rhythm¹⁰

Saptakshetrirāsa, an Old Gujarātī work (1271), refers to two kinds of *rāsas* *tāla rāsa*, in which the rhythmic beat was marked by clapping the hands, and *lakuta rāsa*, in which small sticks held in the hands of each dancer were used for the purpose¹¹. Both these forms are still in vogue, and as popular as they were then.

9 *Brahma P*, 189 1-45, *Brahmavivarta P*, IV 28-53

10. કેવિ ઉત્તાલતાલાડલ રાસય કુર્ણહિ કરનિન્ચિય અચરિ ઘરહાસય ।

11. તીછે તાલારસ પડેહુ બહુ માટે પઢતા ।

અનહ લકુદારસ જોઈઈં છેલા નાચતા ॥

The *rāsa* dance naturally gave rise to poetic literature depicting Love's conquests in spring, or the loves of Sri Krishna and Rādhā. It was essentially popular in tone and expression, its great feature was its freedom from strict rules of prosody. Each poem had its own law, and all that was necessary was cadence, and the possibility of its being sung to a popular melody known as *rāga* or *deśī*, local style¹². Such a poem, which could be sung with a *rāsa*, came to be called a *rāsa* or a *rāsaka*, and later, *garabī*, from the dance, *garabo*.

The *rāsa* sung in the spring festival or *phāga* was itself called *phāga*. The *phāgu* poems describe the glories of the spring, the lovers and their dances, and give a glimpse of the free and joyous life of Gujarāt before the fourteenth century. The earliest available *phāga* in Old Gujarātī is *Sthūlibhadrāphāga* (1324).

But the word *rāsa* changed its meaning about the end of the eleventh century, it came to be used for a long composition giving a sustained narrative in rhymed verse, partly in old Apabhramśa metres like *duhā* and *chupāī* and partly in *deśī* melodies which were popular in Gujarāt even before the eleventh century. In 1118 Yaśodeva, in his *Navatatvabhāshya*, refers to such *rāsa* in Apabhramśa. Hemachandra calls a similar composition a *mahākāvya*. *Bharateśvarabāhubalī rāsa* by Śālibhadra, the first available *rāsa* in Old Gujarātī, is dated 1185. At first perhaps, the popular *charitas* and *dharmakathās* were called *rāsas*, later, all poems in this form came to be known as *rāsas* irrespective of the subject which they treated, and were sung by men and women on festive occasions. Jain literature of this kind became stereotyped. New authors did nothing but turn the works of their predecessors in Sanskrit, Prākṛit, Apabhramśa, and even Old Gujarātī, into *rāsas*.

A love poem, set to popular tunes, was another poetic form. The earliest specimen of such a poem is *Neminātha-chatushpadikā* (c 1269). It is a love-lament of Rājala on her separation from Neminātha. She describes her feelings as they vary with each month of the year.

12 Vide Appendix I

Rājala weeps bitterly as she sees the lakes full of water in the month of Bhādrapada "O source of all kindness! Why have you left me, lonely and helpless?"

Her friend replies, "Do not weep. He is heartless and will never be yours, otherwise, having reared a tree, he would not set fire to it, having carried you to the top of a mountain, he would not throw you down."

Rājala replies, "You speak truly. In these rains, the lakes burst their bounds, the sea tosses about, and the mountains are worn away, but the dark-complexioned beloved does not relent."¹²

In a similar vein the poem refers successively to the other months of the year. Later, similar poems were very popular under the name of *bāramāsī*, literature of the twelve months.

V

The first notable author in Old Gujarātī appeared at the beginning of the fifteenth century. Somasundar (1374-1446), a Jain *sādhu* of great literary attainments, composed explanatory works in prose on religious and philosophic treatises. His *Rangasāgara Nemīphāga* is a charming poem.

Then, in spring full of the fragrance of the sweet Mādhavī creeper, is born Rati, the goddess of love. Trees take up weapons of flowers and start to fight the love-lorn. Madana enters the battlefield and blows his trumpet, the Malaya breeze. Bees, his soldiers, bustle about, and cuckoos sound a clarion call.

All gardens begin to bear the weapons of the god who shoots flower-arrows. Bees spread everywhere.

When people, fascinated, see bees sitting on a Sevantī flower, they say that Rāhu has eclipsed the moon.

Another short and interesting poem of the kind is *Vasantavilāsa*, The Joys of Spring, believed to have been composed in the beginning of the fifteenth century. The poem was found in an illuminated manuscript containing paintings in the style of Ajantā, which was favoured by the Gujarātī painters of the time.¹⁴ A love-lorn bride, oppressed

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13. भाद्रवि भरिया सर पिक्खेवि सकरुण रोअइ राजलदेवि ।
 हा एकलडी मइ निरधार किम ऊवेषिसि करुणासार ॥
 भणइ सखी राजल भन रोइ नीठुर नेमि न अप्पणु होइ ।
 सिंचिय तरुवर परि पलवति गिरिवर पुण् कड डरा हुति ॥
 साचउं सखि वरि गिरि भिज्जति किमइ न भिज्जइ सामलकति ।
 घण वरिसतइ सर फुट्टंति सायर पुण घणुओह डल्लति ॥

by the fresh beauties of the spring, expresses her feelings thus

Stop, friend cuckoo Why sing so much? I am forlorn, my lord is far away, I cannot take delight in pleasure My garland is a burden on my breast Friend, ornaments are like blazing fire to me Perfume does not attract me, nor does the moon fascinate me Friend, my body is athrob with pain, fine raiment no longer charms me, my food is tasteless to-day, even sweet water tastes flat

Full moon, why do you give me pain? Why? Dark-spotted one, why kill a helpless woman? Consider well if you kill me, it will be sinful

Bee, please leave me alone My body is frail Moon! Torturer! We have no old scores to pay¹⁵

Phāgu, composed by Natarshī (c 1439), expressing the joys of spring, is an excellent specimen of *phāga* literature

The month of Phāga has begun Spring has come, the good people are full of joy, Malaya breezes blow, burning the heart of lovers

Rāsaka

The sylvan goddess came and besought the Lord "The ten quarters have assumed new forms, Kāmadeva is coming to embrace you, Krishna Lord Murārī, pray come"

Having heard this, the Lord was pleased and looked at his friends, and with his friends the Yādava went to the forest

Maidens, bowed with the weight of their breasts, move like elephants excited with passion, their anklets tinkle and the broad bracelets shine

Their braided hair look as if a cobra had nestled there, vying with the colour of their lips, corals acknowledge defeat

Āndola

Gopīs begin to dance, hand-drums are played upon, bending their beautiful bodies, they dance to the accompaniment of rhythmic movements Śārṅgadhara, the best of his family, plays the flute

They sing new songs of spring to the melody of the *srīrāga*, they keep time with their feet Śārṅgadhara plays the flute

-
- 15 रहि रहि तोरीय जो इलि, कोइलि स्यु बहु वास ।
 नाहुलउ अजीय न आवइ, भावइ मू न विलास ॥
 उर बरि हार ते भार मू, सयरि सिंगार अगार ।
 चीतु हरइ नबि चदन, चद नही मनोहार ॥
 सखि मुझ दूष अनोठऊ, दीठऊ गमइ न चीर ।
 भोजनु आज उछीठउ, मीठउ, स्वदइ न नीर ॥
 सकलकला तू निशाकर, शा कर सइरि सतापु ।
 अबल म मारि कलकीय, शकीय भ्या हव पापु ॥
 भमरला छाडि न पाषल, बाषल भ्या अहम सइर ।
 चांडुला सइर-सतापण, आपण ता नहीं वइर ॥

In their hands, *gopīs* hold lotus-stems, they wave them over their heads, to every tune, they keep time And Śārngadhara plays the flute As the moon shines among the stars, so does Mukunda among *gopīs*, gods, men and Indra bow down to him in worship Śārngadhara plays the flute

Phāga

The best of cowherds, Mukunda, and the *gopīs* wander about in the forest, playing, and the forest, inspired by the breeze, bows low to Murāri²⁸

The literature of the *deśabhāshā* possessed an artistic beauty of its own, though it was largely influenced by works like *Gītagovinda*, or, as is more likely, by older songs

VI

The Jain *sādhus* popularised their teachings by means of prose *kathās*, some of which have been preserved The prose which they used was highly developed, racy and expressive It possessed a rhythmic charm peculiar to itself, and, often, was embellished with literary graces borrowed

फागु

16. आविय मास वसतक, सत करइ उत्साह ।
मल्यानिल महि वायउ, आयउ कामगि दाह ॥

रासक

धनवरि आविय प्रभु वीनविउ, नवि दसइ दिसारी रे ।
माधव माधव भेटणे आवइ, आवित देव मुरारि रे ॥
वात सुणी प्रभु मणि अति हरखिय, निरखिय गृहपरिवार रे ।
निज परिवारिइ जादव पुहुतु, बहु तु वनह मझारि रे ॥
थण-भरि नमती तरुणी करुणी, वरुणी चरण सचारि रे ।
चालइ चमकत झमकत नेउर, केउर कटक विशाल रे ॥
वेणिय वयणि मिषतरि, भितरि रहिउ सिरि नाग ।
अधररग परवालिय, आलिय नावइ भाग ॥

आदोल

नाचइ गोपिय बुद, वाइ मधुर मृदग ।
मोडइ अंग सुरग, सारगधर वाइत मूहयि ऐ, कुलवण मूहयि ए ॥
कर लिइ पकज नाल, सिरि वरि फेरइ बाल ।
छंदिहि वाजह ताल, सारंगधर०
तारा माहि जिम चद, गोपिय माह मुकुंद ।
पणमई सुरनर इद, सार गधर०

फागु

गोपिय गोपति क्रीडति, हीडत वनह मझारि ।
माखत प्रेरित वन भर नमई मुरारि ॥

from Sanskrit works like *Kādambarī* The style of Tarunaprabha (1355), the first author of merit in prose we know of, is remarkable for vigour, grace and felicity of expression His *Pratikramanabālāvabodha*, intended to illustrate the ethical doctrines of the Jains, is well told

Somasundar's *Upadeśamālā* and *Yogaśāstra* contain numerous tales in prose, which, though less rhetorical than Tarunaprabha's, show ease and rhythm The stories written for the young, the ignorant and the credulous are simple, full of miracles, and inspired by a hatred of the Brāhmana, the sādhu's age-long and successful rival in religion, letters and politics

A cunning Brāhmana of Ujjayinī, Aghorasiv, went to the land of tanners He met thieves He said to them, "I am assuming the garb of a *muni* to pass myself off as an ascetic, praise me that the people may be deceived" The thieves consented Thereafter, the Brāhmana, assuming an ascetic's garb, went and lived in a forest between three villages The thieves began to praise him to the people, they said that he had been fasting for a month and induced the people to worship him

The people invited him to meals Believing him to be an ascetic, they told him of their wealth and consulted him about their future gains and other affairs Having come to know of the wealth of the people, he joined the other thieves and broke open their houses at night

Once, one of the thieves was caught On being beaten, he disclosed the names of the other thieves The people captured all of them and punished them As the Brāhmana had been in the garb of an ascetic, they gouged out his eyes and drove him away Afflicted by pain and censured by people, he felt contrition for his acts He died and went to hell Thus he who deceives others, lives to be sorry for his acts ¹⁷

17. उज्जयनी नगरीइ अघोरशिव इसि नासि धूर्त ब्राह्मण चर्मकार देशि गिओ। चोररहइ मिलइ। इसिउ कहइ—हूं मुनिवेष लेई तपस्वी थाउ छउं। तुहम्यो मुजब्हई वषाणियो जिम सुखि लोक वचाइ। चोरे मानिउ। पछइ ते ब्राह्मण परिव्राजकनु वेष करि त्रिहु गाम धिचालइ वनमांहि थई रहिओ। चोर लोक देवता वषाणइ तेहनइ। ए मासोपवास करइ तापस—इम कहो तेहनइ पूजा करावई। लोक तेहनइ घरि तेडी जिमाडई। महा तापस भणी मानता आपणा घरनी लक्ष्मीनू स्वरूप तेहब्हई कहई अनइ आगामीया लाभादिकनउ स्वरूप पूछइ। पछइ ते लोकनी लक्ष्मी हेरीनइ रात्रिनइ समई बीजां चोरसार्थी लोकना घर मुंसई। एकवार तेह माहिलओ एक चोर साहिओ। तीणइ मारीतइ बीजाइ चोर सघलाइ कहिया। लोके सघलाई बरिया मारिया। परिव्राजक भणी आषि काढी मुंकिओ। पछइ ते वेदनाक्रांत हूतओ लोके निंदीतु पश्चात्ताप करई। मरी नरगि गिओ। इम अनेरु ऊ जिको वचई ते इम शोचइ—पश्चात्ताप करई॥

But a much more artistic piece of prose *dharmakathā* is *Prithvīchandracharitr* by Māṇikyachandr (1422) The story is exceedingly well told Apart from the conventional lists of weapons, sciences, etc., it contains some excellent descriptions, revealing a rare sense of proportion The language is more elaborate than Tarunaprabha's or Soma-sundar's and more musical The sentences are constructed with a sure eye to rhetoric and balance, and, at places, attain poetic cadence Very often, the sentences are broken up into clauses, the last words of which rhyme

In Chapter I the rivers, the mountains and the countries of the world, and the city of Paithan in Mahārāshtra, its markets and its jewels are described in detail Prithvī-chandra, the king, sees a dream

What kind of dream? The king saw a damsel who had the golden hue, tempting even to gods, she had jingling anklets, shining earrings, a garland in her hand, a broad forehead like the crescent moon ¹⁸

As she throws a garland on his neck, the king wakes up Next day he holds his court, and the author enumerates his officers and describes his court A messenger from Ayodhyā arrives, who describes the country of Kośala, its capital, its king Somadev, his queen, and their accomplished daughter, Ratnamañjarī, versed in seventy-two arts

Chapter II begins with the description of the monsoon

The monsoon, enemy of travellers, then arrived, famine disappeared In the rains, lively thunder issued from the clouds, and the famine-stricken became fearless as if the drums of victory had announced the arrival of King Plenty In all quarters, lightning flashed, travellers ran home The sky became fearful, the sun and the moon developed a nimbus The nights were dark, the insects sang The storm from the north spread, the heavens were overcast The quarters of the sky were dark, peacocks danced Rain poured in torrents, waters flowed noisily, creepers covered the hedges Carts, ploughing through the mud, got stuck, people turned their thoughts to God Rivers were flooded, overflowing their banks Saplings sprouted, foliage danced Farmers

18. किसिउ ते स्वप्न ? इसिउ-जाणइ नरेश्वर, सुवर्णवर्णकाति, देवरहइ मन भ्राति, षलकते नेउरि, झलकते कुडलि, हाथि वरमाल, अर्द्धचद्रसमभाल, रूपि विशाल, इसी बालदेवी देषइ भूपाल ।

rejoiced, religious teachers read the scriptures, streams ran down mountains, and lakes, filled to the brim, overflowed¹⁹

King Somadev goes to see a lake. The Brahmanas are invited, and the Purānas and the Smritis, which are enumerated, are recited. Ratnamañjarī comes to the lake. A swan, lovely like a heap of *kunda* flowers, flies from the lake and alights on the king's hand. The princess, moved by curiosity, takes it in her hands. The swan suddenly flies away with her. The king's efforts to recover the princess meet with no success. Then comes spring, and the king again goes to the lake. He is presented with a lotus, from which Ratnamañjarī emerges. The restoration is duly celebrated, and the joy of the people is fully described. The king then decides to hold a *svayamvara* for his daughter and invites all eligible suitors, and the messenger has come to Prithvīchandr with the invitation.

Prithvīchandr starts for the *svayamvara* with his troops, chariots and horses, traverses a forest, and halts before a city. Suddenly, a man runs up to him and falls at his feet. The warders of the city, in pursuit of the man, ask the king to give him up as he is a thief. Prithvīchandr declines to surrender him. Thereupon, Samaraketu, the king of the city, marshalls his army for battle. The two armies meet, and Prithvīchandr, thanks to divine aid, is victorious. Samaraketu lies at his feet, a chained slave.

In Chapter III the fugitive who was pursued as a thief tells his story.

19 વિસ્તરિત વર્ષાકાલ, જે પથીતળડ કાલ, નાઠડ ડુકાલ । જીણિઈ વર્ષાકાલિ મધુરઘ્વનિ મેહ ગાજઈ, ડુભિક્ષતળા મય લમાજઈ, જાણે સુભિક્ષભૂપતિ આવતાં જયઢક્કા ઘાજઈ । ચિંહુ દિસિ બીજ ઝલહલઈ, પથી ઘરભળી પુલઈ । વિપરીત આકાશ, ચદ્રસૂર્ય પરિયાસ । રાતિ અધારી, લવઈ તિમિરી । ઉત્તરનડ ઝનયળ, છાયડ ગયળ । દિસિ ઘોર, નાચઈ મોર । સધર, વરસઈ ધારાધર । પાણીતળા પ્રવાહ ષલહલઈ, ઘાડિ ઝપરિ વેલા વલઈ । ઘીઘલિ ચાલતાં શકટ સ્વલઈ, લોકતળા મન ધર્મઝપરિ વલઈ । નદિ મહાપૂરિ આવઈ, પૃથ્વીપીઠ પ્લાવઈ । નવા કિસલય ગહગહઈ, વલ્લીઘિતાન લહલહઈ । કુટુંબીલોક માચઈ, મહાત્મા બઢાં પુસ્તક ઘાચઈ । પર્વતતડ નીક્ષરળ વિછૂટઈ, મરિયા સરોવર ફૂટઈ ।

In Angades is situated the city of Śrīpurī, where lived a merchant, Lakshmidhar, full of wealth I, Śrīpatī, am his son, but my luck was bad Our wealth was ten crores, but it disappeared with my father Father died, and, after his death, what was in the ship sank in the sea Some wealth was misappropriated by the servants, what was in the shop was stolen by thieves Whatever was in different places was lost Some was taken away by the king My house was razed by fire I lost all support All wealth was gone, one lac alone remained

Then I left all other work, and began to load a ship On an auspicious day, the ship was loaded Three hundred and sixty kinds of spices were loaded in it seven kinds of sweets were put on board, seven kinds of pickles were stored, the casks were filled with water The god of the sea and the crows were worshipped The drums resounded and trumpets were blown Bābarī and Kolī began to dance, sailors began to shout, the mast was erected, the anchor was weighed, the sails were spread, the sailor in charge began to throw out water collected in the boat, the helmsman sat holding the sheet, the captain sat in the bow Oars were plied The helmsman began to steer, the pilot to look after the ship The gods were happy, the sea echoed back the music

We went further, cold winds blew, and the sky was overcast with clouds Furious gales blew, the sea became stormy The waves rose sky high, the frightened people became sea-sick The waves rose higher and the cargo was lost Some one said, "Oh! Luck", others began to pray to the gods The ship dashed against a rock and was wrecked Śrīpatī found a plank Clinging to it, he came to the shore after three days²⁰

20 અગદેશિ શ્રીપુરિનગર, તિહા શ્રેષ્ઠિ લક્ષ્મીધર, શ્રીલક્ષ્મીઈ સધર। તેહતણુ પુત્ર હુ શ્રીપતિ, પણિ દિવસ દેવગતિ। દસકોડિ દ્રવ્ય હૂતી, પણિ બાયુજીસાથિ પહુતિ। પિતા પરોક્ષ હૂઆ પૂઠિઈ જ વાહનમાહિ ઘાતિહ, ત સમુદ્ર સાતિહ। કઈ વાણઝત્રે પ્રસિહ, હાટ ચોરે મુસિહ। થલવટનહ થલવટઈ રહિહ, કાઈ ઠાકુર પ્રહિહ। ઘર બલિહ, સમગ્ર મંડાણ ટલિહ। સમગ્ર દ્રવ્ય નિસ્તરિહ, એકલક્ષ દ્રવ્ય ઝગરિહ। પછઈ અવર કાજકામ છાડિહ। પ્રવહણ પૂરિવા માડિહ। ભલઈ દિવસિ પ્રવહણ પૂરિહ। ત્રિન્નિ સઈ સાઠિ ક્રિયાણા ચડાવ્યા, સપ્તવિધ પકવાન ચડાવ્યા, સપ્તવિધ કરવા લિયા, પોતા સપાળી ભરિયા, દેવસમુદ્ર વાયસ પૂજાવ્યા। શાભિલ માદલ વાજિવા લાગા, બાબરિ કોલણિ નાચેવા લાગી, ગલેલા હેલાહેલ કરવા લાગા। કૂઝવમહ ઝમહ કીધહ, નાગર ઝપાડિહ, સિદ તાડિહ, ધામતીહ ધામત ડીચઈવા લાગુ, વાઝરીઝ તલિ પઈઠહ, નીજામહ નાલિ બઈટહ। આઝલા પડઈ, સૂકાળી સૂકાળ ચાલવઈ, માલિમ વાહણ જાલવઈ, સુરવર લહલહ્યા, વાદિત્રનાદિ સમુદ્ર ગાજી રહ્યા। હિવ આગલિ જાતા હૂતા ચિલીવાય વાયા, આકાશિ હૂઈ મેઘછાયા। ઝડિહ પવન પ્રબલ, સમુદ્ર હૂહ ડહુલ। કલ્લોલ આકાશિ ઝપડઈ, બીહતા લોકરહઈ ડીવા ચડઈ। વેલા લામી, વસ્તુ વામી। એક, હા દૈવ કરઈ, એક દેવધ્યાન ધરઈ। વાહણ પર્વતિ આફલી ભાગહ, શ્રીપતિઈ હાથિ પાટીહ લાગહ। તેહનઈ આધારિ તરતહ, ત્રિહુ દિવસિ પરિ આવિહ।

Śrīpati then meets an ascetic who demands his head. Frightened, he runs away, comes to the city, and is pursued by the city guards.

He now wants to give up the world, tired of its injustice. Samaraketu, after listening to his experiences, catches the infection and wants to give up his throne. Prithvīchandr asks him to accept the worship of Jina. In the meantime, a sādhu comes along and Samaraketu accepts the Jain faith.

Prithvīchandr proceeds to Ayodhyā. He is received by Somadeva and, when he attends the *svayamvara*, outshines all the kings present. Ratnamañjarī comes dressed for the occasion, and the suitors are introduced to her. Ultimately, she accepts Prithvīchandr as her husband.

In Chapter IV King Dhūmaketu, angry at being passed over by Ratnamañjarī, raises an army of demons. Confusion follows, darkness spreads everywhere, and in the morning, the princess is found to have disappeared. Every one is anxious until the earth opens, and a divine woman seated on a throne brings back Ratnamañjarī. Prithvīchandr then marries the princess and rejoicings follow.

Prithvīchandr and Somadev, soon thereafter listen to a recital of the life of Dharmanāth Tīrthankar, from which they receive religious inspiration. Prithvīchandr and Ratnamañjarī return to Paithan, where, in course of time, a son is born to them. The king then takes Jain vows.

VII

In spite of the loss of royal patronage, the sādhus continued to pursue their literary activities in Sanskrit, which, however, left the classical groove and ran in popular channels. Following the footsteps of Hemachandra and Somaprabha, they created a new mythology for their faith out of the legends of Kumārapāla and Hemachandra, many of which had already attained absurd proportions. The works belonging to this period which have been the main source for later literature of its kind are (1) *Prabhāvakacharitra* by Prabhāchandra and Pradyumna (1278), (2) *Prabandha-chintāmaṇi* by Merutunga (1303-1306), and (3) *Chaturvimśatīprabandha* by Rājasekhara (1348-49). The first is a

collection of twenty-two legendary lives of Jain teachers and includes one of Hemachandra. The second contains a series of episodes concerning, among others, Vikrama, Śālī-vāhana, Vanarāja, Muñja of Dhārā, Bhoja of Ujjayinī, Bhīma, Siddharāja, Kumārapāla and Hemachandra. The third is on the same lines as the second.

Prabandhachintāmanī is by far the best of the three in style and treatment, as also in wealth of historical material. Though mainly in Sanskrit prose, it contains interesting quotations from Apabhramśa literature. The language is at places full of inaccuracies and *deśī* words, and the work, as a whole, is not of a high literary order. The anecdotes are full of anachronisms, omissions and bias, making them unreliable as historical documents. But the author never pretended to write any history.

The old stories do not delight persons of understanding as they have heard them very often, hence, I am compiling this *Prabandhachintāmanī* which contains detailed information about the good men who lived nearer our times. All *prabandhas*, as the learned recite them according to their understanding, become different in character, clever people, therefore, should not criticise this work, as it is based on good tradition.

As centuries passed, the historical *prabandhas* ceased to have any element of history in them and deteriorated even from the literary point of view. The only other important work of this kind in Sanskrit, produced during this age, is *Kumārapālacharitra* by Jayasīma (1360), *Kumārapālprabandha* by Jinamandan (1436) and *Vastupālacharita* by Jinahams are similar works.

Note A Gujarātī

The word Gujarāt came to be progressively applied to the certain parts of the present region known by the name by the middle of the 12th century²¹. Marco Polo (1254-1324) applied it to a territory which included modern Gujarāt, Ambadevasūrī²² author of *Samarāṅga* (1315) and Rājasekharasūrī (1348)²³ knew the region by that name, Padmanābh (1456) uses the word Gujarāt, as also the adjective Gujarātī²⁴.

21 Munshi, IG p 4

22 आविड गुजरात.

23 गूजरातेति ख्यातदेशः।

24 गूजरातिनु, भोजनकरं; गूजराति ते कहीइ किसी.

Its *desabhāṣā* was referred to by early authors as Apabhramsa Gaurjarī or Lātī, by Bhālan (c 1426-1500) as Apabhramsa or Gurjara-bhāṣā²⁷, by Mārkaṇḍeya in his *Prakriyāsarvasva* (c 1450) as Gaurjarī Apabhramsa²⁸, by Padmanābh (1456) as Prākṛit²⁹, by Narasimh Mehtā (1450 ?) as Apabhrashta girā³⁰, by Akho (1650) as Prākṛit, or Bhāṣā³¹; Premānand (c 1647-1750) was perhaps the first to call it Gujarātī³², and, for the first time, it was so styled by foreign visitors about the same time (1731)³³. These names were used generally to distinguish it from Sanskrit, the language of culture

With a view, however, to find a place for it in a scheme of Indian languages, modern scholars have tried to invent new names for it Dr Tessitori calls it Old Western Rājasthānī³⁴ from the area in which it was spoken, Narasimhrao Divatia calls it Gaurjarī Apabhramśa, Grierson calls it Gujarātī

Note B Evolution of Old Gujarātī

Generally speaking, in the synthetic stage of a language the particles added to a noun to form case-endings are not separable, but are incorporated in the word itself, with the result that the terminal syllable is varied as in Sanskrit. In the analytic stage, the word stands without any termination and an auxiliary word is tacked on to express the relations denoted by the termination

The changes described in the text are illustrated with special reference to the works mentioned on pages 85 and 86

I The nominative case termination in Skt is the *visarga*, i.e., च्छ. In Apa it is उ, e.g., ब्रासु भणइ, the same, in Old Guj No 1 (1185), it is optionally dropped in No 2 (1210), e.g., सीस भणइ. The option is continued till it is dropped in No 8 (394), e.g., च्छ उगइ

The objective case termination in Skt is स्, e.g., च्छम्, it is उ in Ap it is optional in No 2 and in No 1 (1185), (1210), e.g., च्छित पढइ. The option is also found in No 8 (1394), e.g., जीव ससार तरइ and किसउ तरइ, ससार

The instrumental case termination survived even in Old Guj, e.g., धर्मिइ तरइ in No 8 (1394), in Mod Guj an optional form is used with a preposition, e.g., धर्मिथी or धर्मि तरे छे

25 गुजर भाषाए नळराजाना गुण मनोहर गाउ, कथामात्र ए नइषधरानी
अवभ्रस ए दाखी

26 सस्कृताढयाच गौर्जरी।

27 प्राकृतबध कवित मति करो

28 अवभ्रष्ट गिराविशे काव्य केवू दीसे

29 भाषाने शु वळगे भूर; काइ प्राकृतमाथी नाशी गयु.

30 बाधु नागदमण गुजराती भाषा

31 La Croze, LSI, IX Pt II, 333

32 I A 1914

Pk and Ap had no dative In Old Guj it is an optional with इणिकारणि in No 7 (1355) नइ कारणि is continued in No 8 (1394) Thereafter the case termination is no longer used The preposition ने, which is used, is derived from Pkt thus लणि-लइ-नइ-ने and is, perhaps, similar to Marāṭhī ला and Nepālī ङ. According to Narsimhrao, it is derived from Skt तन-तण-नु-ने Dave connects it with नय and S K Chatterji and K K Shastri derive it as कर्ण—कङ्ग—अङ्ग—ने

The ablative termination in Skt is formed by अतु e.g., रामात्, by होन्तु and हो in Apa, by हूतु in No 2 (1210), by इनउ, उतउ in No 7 (1355), by इतउ, हूतउ, or the preposition यउ, यकउ in No 8 (1394) यी-यकउ are derived from Skt स्थित and स्थि and their use marks the analytic stage of the language Bhālan (1452) uses यी-यकी, some others, स्थकी. The optional use of हूतु is continued till the end of the XVII century in Jain works

The genitive case termination in Skt is स्य, in Ap it is हो and हु, e.g., कतहो, नरह, is ह in No 2 (1210), e.g., वीरजिणेइह तीथि But the preposition तणउ, अह नउ and नउ is also used in Ap It is used in Old Guj in No 1 (1145), e.g., भरइ नरिदह तणउ चरित्तो, and in No 2 (1202), and displaces the termination in No 5 (1274) It becomes अह नउ तणउ, in No 8 (1394), e.g., चैत्रतणउ, and तणो and ना in *Kāṇhadadepra-bandh* (1456) Both these latter forms have come down to Mod Guj Another preposition used for the purpose is derived from Skt कार्य-क It becomes केर in Ap, survives as कैरो in Bhālan (c 1450) and as केरो in Māravāḍī, and is still used in poetry and in some adjectives in Mod Guj, e.g., सोनेरी, रुपेरी It is found in Bengali আমার.

II No 6 (1280) shows that the change referred to in para II p 86 had come to stay e.g., गाजइ for गज्जर Ap and गजति Skt बाप for Ap

III No 6 (1280) has बइसइ for उवइसइ Ap, and उपविशति Skt The same work uses अच्छइ as in Apa for अस्ति Skt and अच्छइ Pālī, but it becomes छइ in No 7 (1355)

IV Tarunaprabha (c 1355) and Somasundar in (c 1400) first use छइ as auxiliary It is also used as auxiliary in *Vīśaladevarāso* by Nālha but its date (1216) is doubtful, as the work discloses many later features

V (a) About 1500 the अइ became इ, about 1600 it became ए, the final अ or उ became ओ छइ became छे through छि, घोडउ Old Guj became घोडों through घोडु

(b) The penultimate उ or ऊ became अ, कठिन turned to कठण, लुणइ to लणे This change was effected about 1650

(c) About 1700, स when preceding इ, ए, य became श, e.g., बेसीने-बेसीने, and ल became ङ in writing though it was spoken as early as the time of Hemachandra, e.g., मन्त्रु-मन्त्रु In South Gujarāṭa and the sea coast in Saurāshtra and several other parts the change has not been effectively introduced even now

(d) The passive ०ईयइ, is substituted by ०आय, e g , करीयइ Old Guj , was replaced by कराय

(e) Between 1410 and 1650 various other changes came into existence by which

(1) The synthetical concord was changed to fit into a later idiom, e g , the concord in the passive voice of verbs in the past tense as in Skt was used by Bhālan and Premānand, but, later, this is altered and the object is put in as in dative with ने दिठु नही तेणि व्याधि हु (Bhālan) would be now ते व्याधे मन दीठो नही कहें द्रुपदी हु भले टाळी (Premānand) would be कहे द्रुपदी मने भले टाळी,

(11) An idea conveyed by an earlier grammatical form was altered in its later form, e g , the sense of the passive future third person singular form is altered to the active future first person singular कथयिष्यति Skt कहिशाइ Old Guj (It will be told) is changed to कहीश (I will tell) कथ्यते Skt, कहिज्जइ Ap , कहीए Old Gujarātī (It is told) is changed into कहीए (We tell)

For a detailed philological discussion *vide* the Wilson Philological Lectures by Narsimhrao Divatia, entitled *Gujarati Language and Literature*, Vol II

CHAPTER II PADMANĀBH AND HEROIC POETRY IN OLD GUJARĀTĪ

Heroic poetry—*Ranamallachand* (c 1400)—*Padmanābh* (1456)
—*Kāhnaḍadeprabandh*—Its value

AS it appears from the verses already quoted from Hemachandra's works, Gujarāt had heroic poetry in Apabhramśa reflecting its martial spirit in the days of the Chālukyas and Vāghelās. A similar literature in Old Gujarātī has all but disappeared, only two poems give an idea of its nature. They provide a brilliant picture of the epic heroism displayed by Gujarāt when it grimly contested every inch of ground with the invader.

I

The first poem, *Ranamallachand*, is a short ballad, composed about 1390 by Śrīdhar, celebrating the heroic deeds of Ranamall of Idar. It consists of seventy stanzas in metres like *sārasī* (*harigīta*), *totaka* and *bhujangī* and is the earliest work of a kind which has been a favourite of the bards. This literature, principally panegyric, is composed in metres which lend themselves to recitation with considerable dramatic force. The language is very often archaic and strongly alliterative. Sometimes words are altered beyond recognition in the interest of sound effects, and assonances and other verbal tricks abound.

Ranamall of Idar, of the Kamadhaj or Rāthod family, was a great warrior. About 1385, he harassed Mīr Malīk Muza, the viceroy of Pātan and spread terror among his Muslim vassals.

As the army of the Sultan bristled with valour Ranamall's whiskers flew straightened with wrath.¹

The Sultan calls upon him to submit. Ranamall roars

If my lotus-like head bows before the Mlechchha's feet, the sun will not rise in the sky. So long as the sun moves in the sky, Kamadhaj will

1 साहस-वसि सुरताण-दल समुंहरि जिम चमकन्त, तिम रणमल्लह
रोस-वसि मूछ-सिहरि फुरकन्त.

not bow to a Turk The flame of the submarine fire may be extinguished, but I will not yield an inch of land to the Mlechchha²

A battle ensues between the two armies, and is described in jingling rhymes The Muslims are routed, and in token of submission the not unusual humiliation of being made to eat grass is forced on them Ranamall begins to think of world-wide conquest, and says, "I shall conquer everything on which the sun shines"³

II

Kānhadadeprabandh (c 1456) follows a great literary tradition It deals with the struggle which Gujarāt made for self-preservation after 1297, and breathes the grim and heroic attitude of her people during those centuries The author, Padmanābh of Visalanagar, was the poet-laureate of Akherāj, the Cāhamāna or Chohān king of Jhālōr and a descendant of the hero of the poem A few manuscripts of the work, luckily mistaken for those of a religious work, were preserved by the Jain temples Its language is Old Gujarātī The style, though not as elegant as Bhālan's, maintains a high level of expressiveness The language is neither trite nor ornate, the interest is well sustained throughout The author, however, could not resist the temptation of recording in the conventional manner the names of Rajput and Muslim warriors, and of introducing didactic verses and tedious narratives of past lives In some places, the chronological order has not been preserved, and the same descriptions appear more than once As a narrative, it is much better than many other *rāsas*, and it has the merit of being without religious bias

III

The poem opens with a prayer, and proceeds to mention Māravād, 'the land of nine forts', and the Sonagrā Chohāns 'as noble looking as royal swans' Karnadev Ghelo ruled in Gujarāt Being enamoured of Keśav's wife, he killed the husband and appropriated the wife The minister

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2. मुझ सिरकमल मेच्छपय लगइ, तु गयणङ्गणि भाण न उगइ.
जा अम्बरपुडतलि तरणि रमइ, ता कमधजकन्ध न धगड नमइ.
वरि वडवानल तण झाल शमइ; पुण मेच्छ न आपूं चास किमइ.
 3. इक्कछत्त रचितलि करू

Mādhav, Keśav's brother, moved by wrath, said, "I shall not taste any food in Gujarāt till I bring the Turks here"⁴
On this, the poet feelingly laments

To the place where he worshipped his God and sang His praises, where he performed sacrifices and gave gifts to Brāhmanas, where he worshipped the sacred Tulsī plant and Pipal tree, heard recited the Vedas and the Purānas, where all go for pilgrimage, where all sing the Smritis and the Purānas, there, Mādhav brought the Mlechchhas⁵

Ready to betray his country for a private wrong, Mādhav goes to Delhi. He approaches Sultan Allā-ud-dīn with presents and offers to subdue Gujarāt if an army is given to him. The Sultan consents, and sends a message to Kānhaḍade, the Chohān king of Jhālora, to let the army pass through his territory on its way to Gujarāt. Proudly, Kānhaḍade replies

I owe no such duty. They will plunder the villages, take my men prisoners, tear off women's ears. I do not make way for those who oppress the Brāhmana and the cow⁶

But Allā-ud-dīn, determined to conquer Gujarāt, secures a passage through Mevād. Battad of Moḍāsā vainly bars the way of the onrushing host.

Pillaging, burning and destroying, the Sultan's army marches towards Pātan. The Muslims, with Mādhav at their head, invest the city. The ex-minister, traitor to the last, advises Karn to escape with his life. The king takes the advice, the queen flees on foot, and the capital falls into the hand of Alafkhān, the general of Allā-ud-dīn. 'And from what once were temples was sounded the muezzin's call to prayers'

The army then started on a further campaign of conquest and destruction to the south. It carried carnage right up to Surat, Rander, and the sea, returned to Saurāshtra,

4 गुजरातिनू भोजन करू, जु तरकाणु आणु अरहू.

5 जिहा पूजीइ सालिग्राम, जिहा जपीइ हरिनु नाम,
जिणि देसि कीजइ जाग, जिहा बिप्रनइ दीजइ त्याग,
जिहा तुलसी पीपल पूजीइ, वेद पुराण धर्म बूझीइ,
जिणि देसि सह तीरथ जाइ, स्मृति पुराण मानीइ गाइ
. माधवि म्लेच्छ आणिया तहिं.

6 ए ता नहीं अहमार धर्म,
भाजीइ गाम झालीइ बान, अबला तणा त्रोडीइ कान,
जिहां पीडइ बिप्र नइ गाइ, तिहा घाट नबि आपइ राइ.

destroyed many of its towns, and proceeded to Prabhās. The Rajputs mobilised their strength to protect the shrine of Somanāth, and valiantly fought the enemy. But the fortress fell, and in front of the temple which they had vainly sought to protect, the heroic warriors, after ceremonial bathing and anointment, fell fighting, 'surrendered themselves to Somanāth'. Mādhav, the cause of all this evil, was also killed.

The temple had fallen into the hands of the enemy. Alafkhān broke open the shrine, shattered the idol to pieces, and carried away the fragments in a cart to Delhi. "We shall make *chunam* out of it", he said. The poet then piteously asks Śiva

In former times, O Rudra, you burnt the demons by your wrath. You spread virtue in the world, you removed the terror which oppressed the gods, you put to flight the powerful demon, Tripura, even as the wind blows away chaff. Padmanābh asks you, O Rudra! Where is now your trident?⁷

The conquering army, the poet proceeds, burnt villages, devastated the land, plundered people's wealth, took Brāhmans and children and women of all castes captive, and flogged them with thongs of raw hide, carried a moving prison with it, and converted the helpless captives into obsequious Turks. Alafkhān then turned his attention to Kānhadade, who had declined to give a passage to his army.

IV

Pārvatī and Gangā, the god Somanāth's spouses, urge Kānhadade in a dream to save the god from the hands of the Mlechchha. When Alafkhān sends a message to Kānhadade, he gets a fitting reply: "A hero never praises himself. He who performs heroic deeds alone wins fame." Alafkhān thereupon continues his march and encamps at Sīrānā. Ministers of the Chohān king call on the Khān, who shows them his army and his prisoners. The ministers report the state of things to Kānhadade, who gets ready

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- 7 आगइ रुद्र ! घणइ कोपानलि दैत्य सवे तिई बाला,
तिइ प्रथवी माहि पुण्य चरतावीऊ देवलोकि भय टाल्या.
ति बलकाक त्रिपुर विध्वंसिउ पवनवेगि जिम तूल;
पद्मनाभ पूछई सोमईया ! केथऊ करु तिसूल ?

for battle The goddess Āśāpurā is worshipped, necessary orders are given, and the Rajput armies go forward to meet the foe

In the battle that follows, the Turks are routed Alafkhān flees for his life The idol of Somanāth is recovered, and nine lacs of prisoners are set free The victory is then celebrated in Jhālor, and the conqueror returns home amidst the rejoicings of his people The fragments of the idol are duly installed in five different towns where they are worshipped (canto 1)

The fleeing Turks came together in a forest, some were without clothes, some, worn out and starving, others, staggering and wounded, whilst a few were being carried on stretchers⁸

Alafkhān entered Delhi like a thief in the night When the news of battle spread, consternation prevailed The women of the Turks began to weep, some tore their clothes to tatters, many smashed the anklets on their feet Some threw away their precious necklaces, others ripped off their ornaments Some rent their hair One had lost her brother, another a husband, a third her handsome sons The markets were closed⁹

V

Allā-ud-dīn puts the blame on Alafkhān and is very wroth He orders another attack on Jhālor The army thereupon marches back and invests the guardian fort of Sāmīānā, which is in the charge of Santalasīm, Kānhaḍade's nephew Kānhaḍade goes to his nephew's assistance, and the Muslim army is annihilated

Allā-ud-dīn becomes furious He sends for his generals and the viceroy of Pātan, collects his army, and himself

-
- 8 जे जे तुरक नासी अवल्या, एक ठामि जई जगलि मिल्या,
एक उघाडा वस्त्र बिहीण, भूखइ करी एक थाइ खीण
एक घूमन्ता जाइ घाई, एक डोली उपाडया जाइ

- 9 अलूखान अधारु करी.

. . . नयर माहि पइठू एकलु
भागा तणी वात इस सुणी, ठाम ठाम रोइ तुरकणी
एक फाडइ पहिरणि सूथणी, पाए नेउर भाजइ घणी
एक लाखइ एकाउलि हार, एक ऊतारइ सवि सिंगार
ताणइ बीणि, बिछोडइ दोर, एक लूस्या दीसइ बदोरि . .
एक तणा बघव भरतार, एक तणा फूटरा कुमार . .
. . . नगर माहि देवराणा हाट.

takes the field The progress of the army, more like a town in motion, is then described. The army lays siege to Sāmi-āṇā, but the fortress is impregnable, and it remains so even at the end of seven long years The Rajputs, in the well-provisioned fort, continue to defy the enemy Allā-ud-dīn then decides upon a sinister stratagem Cows are killed, and their flesh, tied up in sacks, is thrown by catapults over the fortress walls into the lake within The following morning, the Rajputs find their only source of water defiled by the flesh of the sacred cow, and decide upon *jamahar*, or *jouhar*

There was no hope of life None would touch a drop of the water The queen said, "We will now perform *jamahar*" And she addressed a message to the queen of Kānhaḍade "Of what has overtaken us, you will come to know to-morrow Remember us with affection In this life, these are our last salutations" Having thus spoken, the queen put on all her ornaments The retainers brought heaps of sandal-wood Strong and heroic, the queen entered the fire All said "Rāma, Rāma", and the friends wept¹⁰

The Pādshāh comes to know of the queen's self-immolation, and offers to treat the beleaguered city with every consideration if Santala only submits The heroic king replies, "I am ready to give my life, not my honour" The non-combatants in the fort are then asked to leave it, and all the warriors decide on an attack They worship the Śāligrāma (Viṣṇu), and then pray to Rāma They take their bath, dry their hair, put on Tulsi garlands round their necks Animated with one desire, they rush on the Muslims A great battle ensues, and the Hindus, fighting valiantly, are killed to a man (canto 11)

This unflinching and terrible self-immolation of women in order to safeguard their honour was the most striking

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- 10 जीवितव्यनी आशा टली, ए पाणी नहीं पीजइ पली
 राणी बोल इसिउ ऊचरिउ, 'इम जाणेजो जमहर करिउ'
 कान्हडदेनी घरणि, हती, तेह भणी लखी वीनती
 इस्यू कहीऊ 'अहम वीतू जेउ, हवइ वीचिसि कालि तुहम तेउ,
 अहमस्यू प्रीति आणेज्यो घणी, आणी जमारइ मोकलामणी'
 इस्यू कही नखि लाइ धार, राणी सखि करिउ शिणगार
 चदन काठ आणीउ घणु तिहा परिवार मिल्यु तेह तणु.
 साहस प्रभावि एतलि आहि, राणी पइठी पावक माहि
 राम राम बाणी उच्चरइ, सजन लोकनि आसू खिरइ

and marvellous feature of Hindu warfare during those dire times. There is not a fort in Rājputānā which cannot boast of the proud heroism of its women who wooed fire to save their honour, and of men who marched to death to preserve their freedom.

VI

Allā-ud-dīn captures Sāmīānā, and calls upon Kānhadade to surrender. But he is again met with a proud refusal. The Pādshāh continues his march, and, on the way, pillages and burns the venerable city of Bhīnnamāla, even then a centre of learning. Some skirmishes follow with varying success. The Muslim army camps near Jhālōr. Allā-ud-dīn's daughter, Pirojā, who has fallen in love with Vīramadeva, the son of Kānhadade, insists on an offer of marriage being sent to the latter. With lofty pride, the Rajput prince spurns the offer.

The Chohān's race is spotless, like the full moon. Descended as I am from the sun, shall I disgrace the founder of my race? Shall I become a convert? This has never happened before, and shall not happen now.¹¹

The insulted Pādshāh then proceeds to invest Jhālōr. He finds it in a merry mood, for he hears bands playing within its walls, and sees festive banners floating on its towers. The Rajputs, at intervals, sally forth from the fort and harass the besiegers, and the Sultan has eventually to withdraw towards Delhi. Kānhadade, thirsting for fight, comes out of Jhālōr, and his armies press the retreating Muslim army hard.

The princess, having acquired occult knowledge, finds that Vīram was her husband in previous lives. She tells her father of her relationship with Vīram, and prophesies the death of her lover, of Kānhadade, of her father and of herself. This part is introduced evidently after the usual orthodox style of *kathās* from *Tarangalolā* downwards,

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- 11 चहुआणनू कुल निकलक, जिसिउ पूतम तणु मयक
 सूर्य तणइ वशि हु आज, वडा पुरुषनि आवइ लाज
 हु ता नहीं बटालू आप . . .
 इसी बात नवि सुणी पूराणि
 आगिइ हई न, होसि नहीं

but in the mouth of the daughter of Allā-ud-dīn, it mars the realistic charm of the poem

Anxious to see Vīramadev and to obtain the freedom of her sister and brother-in-law, then prisoners in Jhālor, the princess goes to the city with a small retinue. She encamps on the bank of a lake, and is met by the chivalrous Kānhadade and his son Vīram. The princess begs for love, but in vain.

Love has made me miserable. What can I, an unfortunate woman, say? Love I, a foreigner, beg of you, find out for yourself what you are to me. My days and nights seem endless, the pain of separation oppresses me, I cannot live without you, my love. A fish cannot live without water, no more can a woman without her lord.¹²

Vīram is unrelenting. The princess, anxious for peace, requests that the Muslim army should not be attacked at night, and that her sister should be released. The chivalrous Rajputs readily grant these requests. Vīram, in return, demands that the Sultan should not destroy temples, pillage the land, or trouble Brāhmanas and slaughter cows. On behalf of her father, she agrees to respect his wishes. At her desire, she is taken to see Jhālor and has a view of the impregnable citadel. Kānhadade releases the prisoners and returns the captured elephants. Loaded with presents, the princess returns to her father, and the Sultan withdraws to Delhi (canto 111).

VII

The princess tells her father of the glories of Jhālor, its learned men, its warriors, its markets, its pleasures, its ramparts, and its prosperity. The Pādshāh does not like the engagement into which his daughter has entered, but agrees to wait for the period of eight years, at the end of which, according to her prophecy, Jhālor is to fall. Later, he gives order to his army to proceed towards Jhālor. The princess sends her nurse with the army to bring

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- 12 कइ मइ मन्मथ दुहखिऊ जी, कइ हू निर्गुण नारि
 पीयू परदेसिणी वीनचइ जी, आपि आप सभारि
 दिवस दोहिला हू नीगमू जी, रयणि, घणैरो थाइ
 खिरहू वेदना माहरी जी, पीयू बिग रहणू न जाइ
 जु जलहीणी माछली जी, जीवइ नहीं जग माहि,
 कत बिहूणी कामिनि जी, तिम तिम खीणी थाइ.

Vīram to her, or in the event of his death, to bring her his head. The army is repulsed by the Jhālōr forces led by Vīram. But the Sultan is adamant. Jhālōr must be captured at any cost. *Delenda est Carthago*

For over twelve years the beleaguered city defies the Sultan. Its merchants feed the people, miracles save it from disasters. At last a planquin-bearer turns traitor, and discloses a secret way leading to the fort. The bearer's wife, furious at her husband's treachery, kills him, and informs Kānhadade of the unexpected entry of the besieging army. A desperate battle ensues. Kānhadade's brother works wonders against heavy odds, but the out-numbered Rajputs are faced with the alternative of death or dishonour. Kānhadade sends for the priest and, presenting him with his own horse, begs him to flee from the fort. The Brāhmana is not to be outdone, he accepts the king's horses as gifts, but returns them to the royal stables. The king is surprised and asks the priest why he, a man of peace, does not leave the fort.

Who will carry your funeral bier, my king? If I live after you die, then, I live in dishonour. If Jhālōr falls, I too will die.¹³

The solemn rite then begins. The queens prepare for the *jamahara*, the priest gives his benedictions to Kānhadade, the subjects now bow before him, and decide to join him in the immolation. The king calls his son Vīram and anoints him king. Vīram bows to his mother, who blesses him. The sandal and other sacred wood is brought. All the queens, having bathed, commend themselves to the Sun. They enter the fire, precisely 1,984 of their sex follow, gods witness the sacrifice.

Kānhadade and his men, sword in hand, then rush on the besiegers. 'The Rajputs re-enact the *Rāmāyana*' Hundreds fall fighting. The city falls into the hands of the enemy, and Kānhadade, at bay, withdraws to the citadel. His priest advises him to crown his heroism by falling in battle and the Chauhān hero acts accordingly. Vīram reigns for three days and a half. His queens also prepare for *jamahara*. Their companions looking on, the beautiful

13 व्यास भणइ, 'कुण बीजउ राजा पालखी खाधि लेसइ ?

जु तहम पूठि हु जीवू तु अस्कीरति खण पामू,
जाल्होरि भेलातइ नहिच देई आपगू होमू'

queens come to the balconies, and with restrained tears worship their beloved Jhālor fort. "And verily shall we share Vīram's beautiful throne on the Sonagiri Mount," they said, and entered the fire

To ensure death, Vīram thrusts a dagger in his bowels, straps up the wound, rushes into the fight, and dealing death all round him, is himself slain. The Muslim general, who has not lost sight of the princess's wishes, tries to take him captive. But the hero, invincible in death as in life, escapes him.

The nurse brings Vīram's head to Delhi on a bier, and placing it on a gold salver, brings it to the heart-broken princess. As she gazes at the face of her beloved, the head turns away from her. The invincible Chohān hero even in death keeps his vow. Whereupon the princess laments thus

My virtuous, handsome hero! Why are you so wroth? I am love-struck, my Sonagiri Chohān. I am but your wife, with one life only separating us. Why do you forget our love? My heart is broken. Will you not hear me? You are gone to paradise, I will come with you.¹⁴

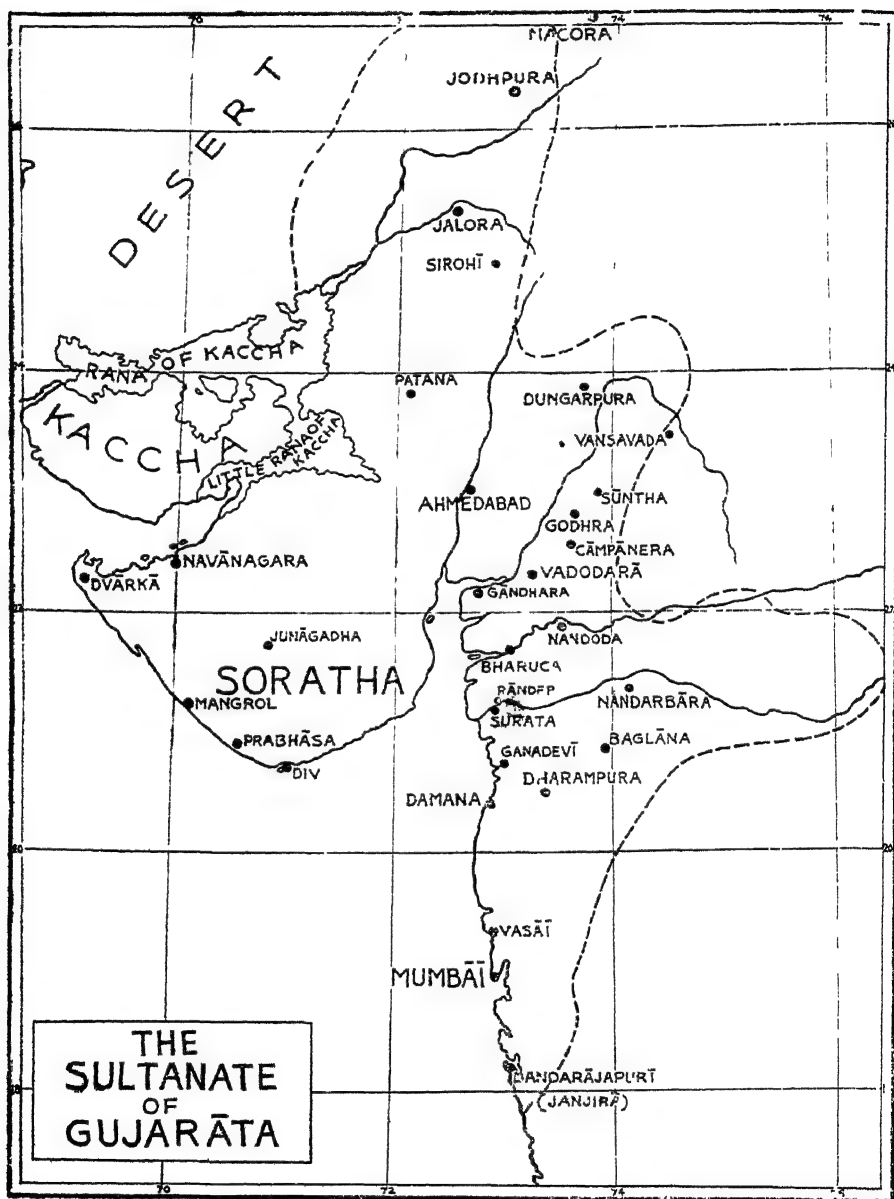
Having worshipped her beloved's head, she jumps into the Yamunā to meet in the next world him whom she had missed in this (canto iv)

VIII

Except where the demands of the conventional features of the *rāsa* take him out of his normal vein, the author is realistic. He is perhaps the only one of the many writers of the period who has handled characters and events so well and truly. The narrative is, on the whole, well sustained. The Rajput and the Muslim warriors are depicted true to life, the former headstrong, firm, unflinching in matters where honour is concerned, neglectful of pru-

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- 14 સગુણ સલૂના રાડલ ! મણિ રૂસણુ કિસ્યુ ?
 હુ તા પ્રેમગહેલડી તુ સોનગિરુ ચહૂઆણજી
 તું તા પ્રાણદ માહરુ, હુ તા તાહરી ઘરિ નારિ જી;
 જનમ એક અતરિ ગયુ સો નેહલુ મ વીસારી જી
 હૈયલડૂ ઘણુ ગહવડયૂ, તૂ સુણિ ન આહમારા નાથ જી !
 તુ અમરાપુરિ સાચરિડ, હુ મરણિ ન મેહલુ સાથજી.

dence, fanatically heroic, the latter, deceitful, resolute, relentlessly cruel and determined on victory at any cost. Only Pirojā, the daughter of the Sultan, is out of tune with the setting. The characters do not lack individuality as do most of those found in the literature of the age. The irate Sultan is not badly done. Kānhadade, generous, charitable, beloved of his people, superstitious, is well depicted. In him is revealed the real Rajput. His son, though he occupies little space, is still a vivid figure and so is the old Brāhmana priest. Mādhav, the 'direful spring of woes unnumbered', is also well drawn. The poet portrays the actual situation in the India of the day. Hindu princes, valiant and heroic, jealous of one another, fighting in isolated splendour, the Muslims, stern and relentless, advancing and campaigning as a collective body. This *prabandha* is a rhapsody unique in Old or Modern Gujarāt, throbbing with great and sustained heroism, an epic of a great age fast fading into oblivion, a swan-song of the Gujarāt of Siddharāja.



CHAPTER III

A NEW GUJARĀT AND THE PURĀNIC MOVEMENT

The Sultanate of Ahmedābād—Akbar—Maiāthā raids—The Purānic influence—The new spirit among Brāhmanas—Impetus to the *desabhāshā*—Rāmānand—The purānika—The Gāgariā bhat—The *ākhyān* literature—Bhālan (c 1426 1500)—The *ākhyān* in his hands—*Kādambarī*—*Dasamaskandh*—Mantri Karman (1470)—Bhīm (c 1437)—Nākar (c 1550)

POLITICAL history from 1411 to 1707 had a negative influence on the literature of Gujarāt. From 1411 to 1573 the country was ruled by the Sultans of Ahmedābād, from 1573 to 1707 it was a province of the Moghul Empire. These facts circumscribed life, and brought into existence new literary traditions which not only ignored political conditions, but provided an easy way to forget them.

I

In 1411 Ahmad Shah, the grandson of Muzafar Shah, transferred the capital of his kingdom from Pātan to Ahmedābād. He was a fanatic, and his acts did not belie his bigotry. He invaded Sorath, Mālhwā and Konkan, but had to conciliate the Hindu landlords by giving them a fourth share of the villages. His grandson, Mahmūd Begdā (1495-1513) was powerful both on land and sea, and consolidated the kingdom by annexing Junāgadh. He built many of the monuments which have made Ahmedābād famous. The Muslim historians narrate numerous anecdotes revealing his popularity with his people. To the Hindus, however, one Sultan was as good, or as bad, as another.

The next great Sultan was Begdā's grandson, Bahādur Shah (1527-1536), a great warrior who adopted an aggressive policy of conquest. Gujarāt soon came to be divided into twenty-five *sarkārs*. Ahmedābād, Sūntha, Godhrā, Chāmpāner, Vadodarā, Bharuch, Nāndod, and Surat, in the centre, Sirohī, Jhālor, Jodhpur and Nāgor in the north, Dungarpur, Vānsavādā, Nandarbār, Bāglān, and Dharam-

pur in the east, Dandarājapuri (modern Janjirā), Mumbāi (Bombay), Vasai (Bassein), and Daman in south, Sorath, Navānagar and Kachchha in the west. A territory slightly larger than what is linguistically the Gujarāt of to-day was a political unit under Bahādur Shah. His ambitious raids drew the wrath of Humāyun, the Mogul emperor, who overran Gujarāt in 1535. Bahādur soon recovered it, but he died the next year. Reckless as a ruler, he laid a heavy burden of military expenditure on the people and left them to the tender mercies of his revenue farmers. In 1573 Akbar annexed Gujarāt to his empire.

From 1411 to 1573, Gujarāt remained a political unit. The *khāns* and *amirs* swept across the country, made friends with Hindu chiefs and leaders as suited their immediate purpose, spread terror and destruction for a time, and were worsted by their rivals, or, sank into imbecility. During this period, the people enjoyed settled existence behind their castes, *mahājans* and *panchāyats* when sheltered by some Hindu chief or a wise Muslim chief. Social exclusiveness became the rule of the day, and life acquired an unprogressive and narrow outlook, mainly religious and other-worldly. And so it continued till the British came.

II

Of all the cultural and educational influences forged during the Gupta times, the Purānas were the most powerful. The *Mahābhārata*, including the *Harivamśa*, a complete cyclopaedia of culture, had attained the sanctity of a fifth Veda under the name of *Śatasāhasrīsamhitā*. The *Vāyu*, the *Matsya*, the *Mārkandeya*, the *Brahmānda*, and, perhaps, the *Devībhāgavata Purānas* had become very popular by the seventh century. The *Viṣṇu* (c. 600), the Purāna of the *Bhāgavata dharma* which the Imperial Guptas followed, exercised great influence over the minds of men. Other Purānas also came to be composed, till their traditional number stood at eighteen.

Literary men, for centuries, sought inspiration for subject and atmosphere from one or more of these Purā-

nas The tradition of mythic kings, the mythology connected with sacred places all over the country, stories and hymns glorifying gods and goddesses, and the ethics and the ritual—all this Purānic wealth had brought uniformity of belief, conduct and outlook to all who looked upon Bharatakhaṇḍa as their land, and Dharma as the law in this life and the means of salvation for the next. It had created in the people a living sense of homogeneity, and of the continuity of Aryan tradition. When the Muslims overran the country, the Purānas became, in the hands of the Brāhmanas, formidable instruments to preserve religion and culture. The Purānic scheme of things had universal application. A Hindu king had a place ready in the genealogy of the Sun or the Moon. A recently elevated Brāhmana had a position ready in the family of a venerable Rishi of Vedic antiquity. And the people had all the materials ready to bring up fresh generations in the traditions of Aryan life, to preserve the integrity of society, and to resist the proselytising vigour of the foreigner.

And when the Brāhmanas found the fanatical foreigner—*mlechchha* as they called him—devastating their land, demolishing the sacred shrines of their faith, destroying their *dharma* and the social structure which they believed to be eternal, they developed miraculous adaptability. They delivered to the masses, through the medium of their dialects, the message of the Purānas, and made the past live again. The Purānic revival preserved society and culture, and directed literary energy into the channel of the *deśabhāshā*. It spread over the whole country and opened up prospects for all. Poets received fresh inspiration, *purāniks*, a new vocation, philosophers, a new orientation. To the village saints, it gave something to live for, and it brought to the ordinary people, in the place of cumbrous ritual and abstruse doctrine, *bhakti*, a worship full of joy and song, dance and prayer. Under its influence every province began to work out its cultural salvation and every language began to develop, and its literature assumed distinctive character.

III

About the beginning of the fourteenth century, one of the greatest of Indian reformers lent an active hand in spreading the different influences then at work. His life is shrouded in tradition, his creed is found only in the devotional songs composed by his disciples. Rāmānand, originally a follower of Rāmānuja, began his apostolic work in North India. He was an uncompromising advocate of purity of heart, and spread the worship of Rāma, the high-souled hero of the *Rāmāyana* and the seventh *avatār* of Viṣṇu. He protested against social and religious evils. The Vedas, Brāhmanas, rituals, inequalities of caste, the grossness of idolatry, and even Sanskrit came in for his iconoclastic zeal. He stood for God, humility, and equality of men.

His teachings proved very popular among the lower classes of Hindus and Muslims. His principal disciples included Kabīr, a spinner, Raidās, a tanner, Sen, a barber, Sadnā, a butcher, and Naraharidās, a Brāhmana. Kabīr, a Hindu brought up by a Muslim, was catholic in an age of orthodoxy, and his *padas*, songs, appealed equally to both communities. He created a great impression in Gujarāt and the *Kabīrpanth* gave rise to sects which claimed numerous adherents. Guru Nānak (1469-1555), the founder of Sikhism, was a disciple of Raidās, and the *Grantha Sāheb*, the sacred book of the sect, contains the only available *padas* of Rāmānand and Raidās. Naraharidās was the *guru* of Tulsidās (1532-1623), the greatest of saint-poets of the age. The latter's *Rāma-charitamānas*, if judged by the number of men it has inspired, can be classed among the few supreme books in the literature of the world.

Rāmānand and his disciples wielded a great liberalising influence over their age. Even the orthodox Brāhmana was shaken out of his narrow religious groove, and could not but admire their tenets and revere the idealism for which the deity, Śrī Rāma, stood. They threw their weight against Sanskrit, and were the first unflinching champions of the language of the people. Kabīr's attack on the lovers of Sanskrit runs thus

Pandits talk in Sanskrit alone and dub those who used the *bhāshā* ignorant fools. In the world, pandits praise only Sanskrit. But *bhakti* through the *bhāshā* alone gives strength and leads to salvation. Sanskrit is the water of wells, *bhāshā* is running brook. *Bhāshā* is loved by the true guru and shows the true way¹.

Rāmānand's influence in Gujarāt was widespread in the latter half of the fourteenth, and the fifteenth century. It taught the learned not to spurn the lowly and the illiterate, but to work with and for them through the medium of their own language.

IV

In the beginning of the fourteenth century, we first come across definite literary landmarks of the Purānic movement in Gujarāt. The *Bhāgavata*, Jayadeva's *Gītagovinda* and Bopadeva's *Harilīlāmṛta*, works principally dealing with the amours of Śrī Kṛṣṇa, had perceptibly altered the tone and language of the folk-songs relating to Rādhā-Kṛṣṇa. In 1416 Nṛsiṃhānyamuni composed *Vishnu-bhaktichandrodaya*, a work on *bhakti*. In 1417 an inscription on Mount Giranār begins with a prayer to Dāmodara, 'the stealer of butter', referring to Śrī Kṛṣṇa's well-known prank as a cowherd. In 1499 Vāghelā Mokalasimha is recorded to have protected the members of the *Bhāgavata* sect.

Pandits were rare, and the knowledge of Sanskrit was restricted to a select class. Among the intellectual and well-to-do classes, there was naturally a craving for literature, and, from the beginning of the fifteenth century, poets worked through the medium of Old Gujarātī to satisfy it. But their language has been transformed out of recognition. Manuscripts of some of their works, recovered so far, have been written years after the author's death. In many cases, the works were handed down from generation to generation by professional reciters of the

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- 1 सस्कृतहिं पंडित कहै, बहुत करै अभिमान,
भाषा जानि तरक करै, ते नर मूढ़ अजान.
सस्किरत ससार में, पंडित करै बखान,
भाषा भक्ति दूढाचही, न्यार पद निरबान
सस्किरत है कूपजल, भाषा बहुता नीर,
भाषा सतगुरु सहित है, सतमत गहिर गँभीर

Purānas, or *purāniks*, and every reciter went on making such changes in their form, language and substance as the occasion and the taste of his audience required. The *gāgarīā bhat*, who preserved most of these works in the form of *ākhyāns*, was the greatest sinner in this respect.

The *gāgarīā bhat*, or *mān bhat*, is peculiar to Gujarāt, and has played a great part in the evolution and preservation of this class of literature. He is the popular counterpart of the *purānik*, who, generally well-read in Sanskrit, recites the Purānas from the original to a select audience at his own house, or at the house of his patron. The *purānik*, more often than not maintains the dignity of learning and enjoys the position of a friend in his patron's family. But the *gāgarīā bhat* is rarely acquainted with Sanskrit, he knows only the *ākhyāns*, or the Purānic episodes in Gujarātī verse which he has learnt from his teacher during his apprenticeship. He goes from place to place with a couple of disciples. His stock-in-trade is his *ākhyāns*, his tact, and his *mān* or *gāgar*, a large copper pot with a narrow neck from which he gets his name.

Wherever he happens to be, he opens his session at night on some temple-door or verandah before a public square. With his nimble fingers loaded with brass rings, he starts playing upon the *gāgar* as on a hand-drum, and makes the pot resound with his skilful raps. The neighbourhood flocks to hear the *kathā*, as the Purānic recital is called, the public square in front and the windows of the surrounding houses are turned into an auditorium for the occasion. The *bhat* recites an *ākhyān*, explains many parts of it, adds a flourish here, a touch there, to move or tickle the audience, improvises new stories and introduces lively anecdotes. The audience sits, hour after hour, absorbed in the recital. The description of a Purānic incident or character, in the mouth of a competent *bhat*, assumes a fresh form and contemporary colour. At an interesting point in the recital the *bhat* stops, and wants to know who among his listeners will provide his next day's dinner, and, unless he is ignorant of the rudiments of his art, he is sure to receive invitations from more than one hospitable townsman. Having made sure of the

morrow, he proceeds with the *kathā* till after midnight, sometimes till the early hours of the morning. The session continues for a month, sometimes, longer, its length, as a rule, depends upon the *bhat*'s ability to attract a good audience, and upon the hospitable nature of the locality. After the session is over, the *bhat* is feasted, carried in a procession through the town, and presented with a purse as a send-off.

The *bhats* flourished in Gujarāt for more than five hundred years, but have fallen on evil days with the advent of the press, the theatre, and the cinema. They provided free entertainment and education, religious and secular and helped to preserve Purānic literature. But these poets were scarcely qualified to reproduce the spirit, the art, or the idealism of the original Purānas, and were mostly content with mechanical repetition of narrative verses handed down from teacher to disciple. Their range of emotion, sentiment and thought was limited, their language, suited to an illiterate audience, lacked refinement and expressiveness. Sometimes, only a Bhālan or a Premānand could break the monotony by a word-picture of contemporary life, or by a charming song full of homely sentiments.

But the service which the *gāgarīā bhat* rendered to culture was immense.

He considered himself the heir of ancient Aryan culture, of a civilization, pure and incomparable, brilliant with heroic exploits, beautiful literature, undefiled ideals. He was prepared to arrest the growth of alien culture. His ears heard the music of the inspiring past. His eyes were fixed on coming victory. He opened the flood-gates of his soul, he sang of his hereditary culture. He inspired *pāthsālās*, he offered prayers from village to village, he recited *kathās* from street to street, he made his songs popular in every home. He kept alive religion and a sense of historic continuity. He preserved language, literature, inspiration, and ideals. And, thanks to him, the immortal spirit of the culture, breaking the bonds of political subjection, triumphed in the land.

This literature took the form of an *ākhyān*. In form, it was a *rās*, but the narrative parts were brief, the arrangement more systematic, and the language more in-

fluenced by Sanskrit. In substance, it presented an independent literary composition based mainly on a free rendering of an *ākhyāyikā* from the Purānas, supplemented by portions borrowed from other sources or composed by the author himself.

V

Bhālan may be called the father of the *ākhyān*. He was a Mōḍh Brāhman by caste, a resident of Pātan. His date, tentatively fixed between 1426 and 1500, is yet uncertain and may be later. The incidents of his life, which enthusiastic admirers have unearthed, do not appear to have any reliable foundation. But his works show that he was a good student of the epics and the Purānas in the original.

In one of his works, he says

Men of sentiment, who are fond of the Purānas, desire to hear them, but their desire remains unfulfilled. Bhālan has, therefore, composed this poem in *bhāshā*.

He appears to have supplied a growing need, and, on his own admission, evoked considerable antagonism from those who found his method undignified for a *purāṇik* of learning. He started life as a devotee of Śiva, but later, as his works show, he fell under the influence of the Rāmānandī sect and transferred his allegiance to Śrī Rāma. He left two sons, Uddhav and Viṣṇudās, both of whom, following in his footsteps with far less ability and equipment, have left parts of the *Rāmāyana*.

His early works were mere renderings of the *ākhyāyikās*. But, later, he borrowed the episodes from several sources, pruned or altered them, and added fresh materials to produce a new work. He also travelled outside the Purāṇic field to compose a *rās* on Bāna's *Kādambarī*. In works presumably composed during his last days, the *ākhyān* reached an advanced stage of evolution. It was a Gujarātī *ākhyāyikā*. With contemporary sentiments, and the Purāṇic plot and characters altered to suit them, it became a new and distinct literary form.

His *Harasamvāda* gives the episode from the *Śiva Purāna*, wherein Pārvatī, jealous of Gangā whom Śiva had

harboured in his matted locks, tries to win back the love of the god by assuming the guise of a forest-girl *Mrigī-ākhyān*, from the same Purāna, describes a hunter, who, unconsciously worshipping Śiva, obtains religious merit and goes to heaven. These, and *saptaśati* borrowed from the *Mārkaṇḍeya Purāna*, may be classed among his early works. They follow the original closely, relieved only by an occasional gleam of contemporary sentiment.

The deer in *Mrigī-ākhyāna*, when his mate is killed, addresses the hunter in a manner which does credit to the sentiments of the poet and to the atmosphere which permitted their expression.

With cunning skill, you slew my lovely bride, before my own eyes
Shame upon him who lives, when the mistress of his soul is dead!
Without my bride, life has no aim, the world is desolate. Without her,
my house and garden are lonely as the abodes of the dead. She was
my support in trouble, I had no better friend.

Parallelisms of this nature were quite common in the literature of the period, and were employed by the poet with great effect.

VI

To the next period of Bhālan's literary activity belongs *Kādambarī*, perhaps the best of his works. It is an adaptation of Bāna's great work, carefully abridged with an eye to acceptable literary presentation. This work of Bhālan is the best *rās* in the language, perhaps the most artistic and sustained composition, not even excepting the *ākhyāns* of Premānand. It has all the good features of a *rās*, but without the loose structure, the monotonous descriptions, the ever-recurring didactic passages and the ill-concealed religious purpose which destroy the unity and charm of many of them. Some of the beauties of the original work are brought out with great skill in a language not possessing the wealth or elegance of Sanskrit.

From the wealth of Bāna, Bhālan chooses what his art and audience require, and presents it with the freedom of a master in the art of literary expression. At places the poem is word-perfect. Bhālan's description of the Achchhoda lake is a delightful picture painted with the help of

a few of the great phrases from Bāna's elaborate masterpiece The little parrot's tale of how it preserved life after its parents had been killed by the hunter, is one of the many passages in which the poet has given to a translation the charm of an original The parrot finally says

King! What can I say? Nothing is so dear as life Otherwise, how could I forget my dead father in the very moment in which I suffered so terrible a blow? No one could be so heartless as I I forgot all gratitude He had denied himself food to give it me, had kept me by his side with loving care, had brought me up under great hardship But I forgot all grief at the loss of my parents and tried to save my life Who could be so callous?

King, I was so tired that I could not even walk The way was difficult to tread, my body was covered with dust, I was wretched, my feet tottered with fatigue I longed for death, but it did not come My sight was blurred, my heart trembled, my mind stood still Thirst made me miserable, but water was far way King! I stumbled at every step³

At another place, the poet graphically describes how the women of the royal palace exchange remarks about one another They are typically Gujarātī Additions in the interest of realism are also made at appropriate places without impeding the flow of the poem

Bhālan is the great artist in the language for portraying parental and domestic feelings The maid describes to Tārāpīda his queen's yearning for a child in words full of grace and feeling

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- 3 राय ! घणू शू कहीई कथी ? प्राण समू काइ चाहालू नथी,
 नहिरि ततक्षण मुउ तात, ते सवि वीसारी मि बात,
 तेह वेदना दारुण सही, मुझ समु को निष्ठुर नहीं ।
 भूख्या रही जिणि दीधू भक्ष, पाल्यु सनेह करी समक्ष,
 ने दोहिलि ऊछेह अवार, ते मुझ वीसरिउ उपकार ।
 जननी जनक गया परलोक, ते मि वीसार्यु सवि शोक,
 देह राखवा कयु उपाय; कोई दुष्ट मुझ सरखु ? राय ।
 श्रात थका मि नवि हींडाय, बिधम बाट, तनु धूलि भराय,
 दु खातुर अति थाका चरण, घणू इ चाछू नावि मरण
 आवि अधारु लोचन, धूजि रिदि, न चालि मन,
 पीडि पिपासा; बेगलू बारि, ढली ढली पडूरा, तिणि ठारि.

While talking, "Oh King", she says "Life is wasted I never kissed a child of mine, never pressed it close to my heart I never saw the smiling face of a son, beautiful with two tiny teeth looking up to me as I fed him with milk Never did I hear, with joyful heart, anklets jingling on his feet as he stumbled along on his toes Oh! What shall I do now? I shall never see him return from school, ink-pot and writing-board in hand, running up to me, clinging to me with the word 'Mama' My heart longs for a mother's joy, but the longing will never be fulfilled" ⁴

But this work, which modern students of the literature appreciate, does not appear to have evoked contemporary enthusiasm or to have been a subject of imitation

Nalākhyān, which followed, was similar in technique The *Mahābhārata*, Śrīharsha's *Naishadhīya* and Trivikrama's *Nalachampū* have been laid under contribution to produce a short *ākhyān* on the episode of Nala and Damayantī Though the execution of this work is decidedly inferior to that of *Kādambarī*, it was the original of many subsequent copies

VII

His other works are *Rāmavīrah* and *Rāmabālacharit* from the *Rāmāyana*, *Jālandharākhyān* from the *Padma Purāna*, *Durvāsākhyān* from the *Mahābhārata*, *Dhruvākhyān*, *Krishnavishti*, *Krishnabāla-charit*, and the *Daśamaskandh* from the *Bhāgavata* which incorporates *Rukminiharan*, and *Satyabhāmāvivāh* also

Bhālan made a free use of *garabīs* in the works dealing with Śrī Krishna's life, and invested them with charm of

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- 4 वात करती एम कहि, 'मिथ्या गयु ए काल ।
हृदि शू चाप्यु नहीं, चुबन देई बाल ॥
नाहाना नाहाना दत्त बि, नि सुदर मुखनु बान ।
पुत्र हसतु नहीं दीठु, करावता पयपान ॥
चरण बागि घूघरी, अगुली बलगु जाय ।
ए सुख हू पामीं नहीं । हवि करू किशु उपाय ॥
नेसालीथी भणी आवि, पाटी खडिउ हाथि ।
आइ । कही बोलावतु घरि बाल घालि बाथि ॥
ए ऊरिउ बीतु नहीं, जे पुत्रमाता नाम ।
एणी पिरि मनि दुख आणि नित्य परति, स्वामि ॥

language and delicacy of sentiment The models furnished by him were copied by all later poets, including Dayārām, and gave to *garabī* its distinctive form The following *garabī* is still popular for the homely charm with which it describes the feelings of Jasodā, Śrī Krishna's foster-mother

Come home, darling Mavaji' I will give you milk and rice with a loving hand You have grown rich since you went to Mathurā, and powerful too But, believe me, none loves you more than I do Devaki herself will not hold you more fondly in her arms than I held you in mine when nursing you Her body will never be as mine was then, all quivering with rapture

Alas! I am your nurse, not your mother, you know it now I know it I know why you are wroth I tied your hands when you stole butter Yes, and I did not jump after you in the Kāṇḍī, you remember it still, you owe me a grudge for it None else can win love, and forget it so lightly as you Raghunāth! Lord of Bhālan! Do remember your love for me, short-lived though it was

The poet deserves a high place in literature as the pioneer of the new tradition, which, through *ākhyāns*, gave Gujarāt a new literature Many authors have worked upon his *ākhyāns*, but none, except Premānand, has improved upon them His style is expressive and elegant He knew the art both of translation and adaptation As we read him, we note the remarkable change which two centuries, between Someśvara and Bhālan, had wrought

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- 5 मीठडा मावजी रे, मारे मदिर आवो;
 प्रेमे पीरसुं परमानंद, कुर ने दूध शीरावो
 मथुरा रिद्धि पाम्या घणी, वाघ्यु छे अति तेज रे;
 सही जाणजो मारा सरखु, को नहिं आणे हेज
 धवरावीने हंडे चांपती, त्यम देवकी नहिं चापे रे,
 रोमाचित मारी देहडी थाती, त्यम तेनी नव कापे.
 माता नहिं थाउ तमारी, घाव कहीने जाणो रे;
 में बाघ्यो जे माखण माटे, तेणे रोष भराणो.
 कार्लिंदी माहे तम उपर, जे हुं नव झपावी रे;
 जाणु छु ते बात सभारी, रीस मनमाहे आवो.
 ते कीधो त्यम कोय दे नहिं, प्रीत करीने छेह रे;
 भालणप्रभु रघुनाथ संभारो, एक घडीनो नेह

Style, verse, outlook, all had changed, and so also the literary quality

The next poet whose work is available, Mantri Karman (c 1470), a Vanik by caste, has left a poem, *Sitāharan*, which is poor in style Bhīm, a Moḍh Brāhman of Siddhapur, composed some *ākhyāns* and a work entitled *Harilīlāshodaśakalā* (c 1484) borrowed from the *Harilīlāmṛta* of Bopadeva The movement spread fast Poets from different parts of Gujarāt composed similar *ākhyāns*, using the *Bhāgavata*, the *Rāmāyana* and the *Saptaśatī* for their models Keśav Hriderām, a Kāyasth of Pātan (c 1536), composed *Daśamaskandh*, a version of 10th canto of the *Bhāgavata*⁶ A voluminous writer was Nākar (c 1550), a Deśāval Vanik of Baroda, who attempted a rendering of some parts of the *Mahābhārata* He was unable to follow the original Sanskrit even with Bhālan's fidelity Many of the Brāhman authors were *gāgarīā bhats* by profession

6 c 1473 originally assigned to him appears to need reconsideration.

CHAPTER IV

BHAKTI MĪRĀN AND NARASIMH MAHETĀ

Bhakti—The evolution of the Krishna cult *Bhāgavata* and *bhakti*—Its philosophic background—The Ālvārs—Āchāryas—Chaitanya—Mīrān (c 1550)—As a *bhakta*—As a poetess—Vallabha sect—Its influence in Gujarāt—Gopāldās (c 1570)—Narasimh Mahetā (1500-1580)—His life—His struggles—His works, *Hāramālā* — *Sāmalasā-no vivāh* — *Sṛṅgāramālā* — *Rāsa Sahasrapadī*—*Suratasangrāma*—His *Padas*—His Surrender to God—His place in literature—Note A The date of Narasimh Mahetā

IN the fourteenth century, the classics and the philosophies receded into the background. Even the Purānas by themselves did not meet the requirements of the people. And the cult of *bhakti* became the most potent factor in the Purānic movement, stimulating an intensely devotional attitude towards the gods and particularly Śrī Krishna.

I

Śrī Krishna was the first to become the centre of a great devotional impulse. He occupies the highest place in the Indian pantheon, in poetry, the supreme love, in religion, he is God himself, and in philosophy, the all-pervading Over-soul, *Parabrahman*. He is the One who delivered the message of the *Bhagavadgītā*, the most popular and profound scripture in a land of conflicting scriptures, which has inspired the life and thought of great Indians from Śankara to Tīlak, Shṛī Aravinda and Mahatma Gandhi, among the moderns. He has fired the imagination of almost every Indian poet since the *Bhāgavata* was composed (c 8th century). And as the very embodiment of triumphant manhood, he has brought inspiration and solace to millions for centuries.

In the *Rigveda*, Viṣṇu, the Sun-god, was the omniscient, *trivikramo viśvasya*, and Varuna, the Sky-god, was the king of heavens, *bhuvanasya rājā*. Later *Aitareya Brāhmaṇa* elevated Viṣṇu to the position of the greatest of gods, and the Vedic myths connected with other gods

were transferred to him *Taittirīya Āranyaka* identified him with Nārāyana, an ancient Rishi, who, as an incarnation of Vishnu, was worshipped by a sect known as Pāñcharātra When the original edition of the *Bhagvad-gītā* was composed, Śrī Krishna the Yādava hero had already been accepted as the *avatār* of Vishnu who had revealed his macrocosmic form (*virāta-svanūpa*) to Arjuna All these different attributes came to be transferred to one deity, the god Vāsudeva, whose worship was common even in the days of the grammarian Pāṇini (c 50 B C) Bhagavān Vāsudeva's devotees came to be known as Bhāgavatas, such a one was Heliodoros, the ambassador of a Greek king, who came to India (c 200 B C) The Gupta emperors were styled *Mahābhāgavatas*, the great devotees of Bhagavān, and the worship of Vishnu and his spouse Lakshmī was popular in the Gupta period

The Vaishnava mystics and saints known as Ālvārs were the apostles of *bhakti* before the rise of Śāṅkara (c 800), who refers to the worship of Parabrahma in the form of Bhagavān Vāsudeva The *Vishnu Purāṇa* had for its object the glorification of Vishnu as Vāsudeva The God was great, the devotee, weak and helpless and prayed to his Master with humility

This *bhakti* was invested with all the attributes of earthly love Nārada, in his *Bhaktisūtra*, defines it as of the nature of intense love Śāṅdilya, in his *Bhaktisūtra*, explains it to be attachment towards god, which, as amplified by the commentator, means love 'characterized by horripilation and other signs of worldly love, like the love felt by Śakuntalā for Dushyanta' The new *bhakti* was an emotion which impelled the *bhakta*, the devotee, to worship the Lord, to seek him everywhere, to yearn for him, to quarrel with him, to remove the distance which reverence implies, in short, to love him passionately as one would a human lover This new emotion led the national imagination, before c 800, to create Rādhā, a bride for Śrī Krishna, more human and lovable than the majestic Lakshmī or Rukmīnī of the Purāṇas In *Dhvan-yāloka* (c 850) she shares the incense with Krishna,

about 980 she is mentioned as his spouse in an inscription of king Amoghavarsha of Dhārā

In the *Bhāgavata Purāna*, composed sometime between c 600 and c 800, prominence is given to the intense lovability of Krishna as a superb child, youth lover, statesman and seer, being God Himself. This was an epoch-making work, it soon acquired predominant influence in the country, as much through its being the gospel of the new emotion as by its rare literary charm. Its sentiments and turns of expression were soon carried to the doors of every villager by the *purāṇikas* in all provinces. Pure *bhakti* is beautifully expressed in the *Bhāgavata*.

As the wingless nestlings wait for the mother, as the hungry calves long to be suckled, as the love-lorn damsel waits for her lover, so, lotus-eyed, does my mind yearn for thee. To hear about Vishnu, to sing of Him, to remember Him, to fall at His feet, to worship Him, to bow to Him, to serve Him, to be His friend, to dedicate oneself to Him, is the nine-fold *bhakti*.

To the *gopīs*, (says Krishna), the nights when I, their lover, went about with them in Vrindāvana were like flitting moments, but when I left them their nights were endless as cycles. In this way, hundreds who knew not My real Self loved Me only as their Lover, and attained to Me, the *Parabrahman*.¹

Thus the Purāṇic movement, leavened by *bhakti*, captured the religious thought and sentiment of the age.

II

Long before the tenth century *bhakti* had taken hold of the South. Temples had been raised to Vishnu and Sankarshana. The twelve Vaishnava mystics and saints, known as Ālvārs, were wandering singers 'mad after God'. One of them was a king, another a beggar, a third a woman, a fourth an untouchable. According to the *bhakti* of Nārāyaṇa which they followed and taught, God was accessible by intense love and complete self-surrender, to all, irrespective of rank or caste or even culture. Their devotional songs became popular under the name of the *Vaishnava veda*, the 'Sriptides of the Vishnu cult'.

1 *Bhāgavata P*, VI 11 26, VII 5 23-24, XI 12 11-13

After the Ālvārs came the Āchāryas, who gave it a philosophic basis. In c 1000, Yāmūnāchārya propounded the doctrine of *prapatti*, surrender to God, his great-grandson Rāmānuja, who succeeded him, gave a complete philosophic back-ground to the movement, and elevated it to the level of a monotheistic religion. The influence of the *Bhāgavata*, after the *Rāmāyana* and the *Mahābhārata* the most potent source of inspiration in India, led to the foundations of different schools of *bhakti* under five great saints. These great philosopher-saints, by their learning, devotion and dialectic skill, founded new schools of thought, and the linguistic and intellectual unity which Sanskrit imparted made it easy for them to introduce a new outlook in the religious and moral life of India. To them we owe the ubiquity of Krishna-consciousness in the country. About 1150 Nimbārka founded a new school in Telangana stressing the pure *bhakti* of Śrī Krishna and Rādhā. "We worship", says he, "Rādhā, the daughter of Vṛishabha, the goddess who joyfully adorns the left lap of the great deity Śrī Krishna, as beautiful as Śrī Krishna himself, surrounded by thousands of damsels. She it is who fulfils all desires." Madhva (c 1199-1278) laid the foundation of a yet more vigorous Vaishnava cult.

Vishnusvāmī, said to be a teacher of Jñāneśvara and accepted by Vallabha as his *guru*, appears to be a powerful teacher-saint of the Rādhā-Krishna cult though little is known about him. The Mahārāshtra School of *bhakti*, however, headed by Jñāneśvara, Nāmdev, Eknāth and later Tukārām worship Krishna and his spouse Rukminī. Their *bhakti* has for its symbol the pure and serene love of the husband and wife (*kānta bhāva*), not the temptations of love of Krishna and Rādhā (*madhura bhāva*). Chaitanya was as much the producer of *bhakti* as of the latest Buddhistic influences in Bengal.

In the tenth century, decadent Buddhism under the influence of Kāhna Bhatta, a great scholar and poet of Bengal, preached illicit love and complete bodily and mental surrender to the teacher as the only way to emancipation. The Rādhā-Krishna romance had already obtained a hold over the popular mind through folk-songs and

festivals Both these currents combined to strengthen the *bhakti* of Śrī Krishna Umāpati, in the eleventh century, and Jayadeva, the author of the *Gītagovinda*, in the twelfth, wrote highly artistic and sensuous poems of Śrī Krishna The linguistic, rhythmic and sentimental graces of *Gītagovinda* caught the imagination of all *bhaktas* in the country, and within a century of its composition, it was recognised as a classic

In the fourteenth century, Navadvīpa (Nadia), the ancient centre of learning in Bengal where later Bhuddhist monks had preached love as the only avenue leading to Nirvāna, rang with the passionate love-songs of one of the greatest of Indian poets, Chandīdās This learned and pure Brāhmaṇa belonged to the Sahajīā Sect Following its tenets, which required a seeker after salvation to love a low-caste married woman, he had given his heart to a washer-woman, Rāmī Chandīdās was persecuted for this love, but, for the sake of the woman to whom he addressed his immortal love-songs, he endured every form of persecution "You are religion, you are my parents You are my threefold worship You are the Vedas, the Gāyatrī You are the goddess of speech, Sarasvatī, and Pārvatī," thus he expressed his yearning for Rāmī He composed *kīrtans*, ostensibly religious, which told only the tale of his undying passion

With these lyrics eternally ringing in his ears, Mādhavendrapurī, a *sanyāsin* from Bengal and a disciple of Madhva, came to Vrindāvan near Mathurā The sacred groves, where once Śrī Krishna had made love to Rādhā, were the most active centres of the *bhakti* cults The *bhaktas*, the teachers and thousands of devotees came there every year from all parts of India generation after generation, and so also came there Mādhavendra to meet his lover, Śrī Krishna On the banks of the Yamunā, in the groves hallowed by divine romance, the learned *sādhū* wandered like a maiden in love, singing songs, seeking his love This *bhakta* founded there a temple which attracted Bengālī *bhaktas* He died in c 1485 leaving a number of disciples including Īśvarpurī

A few years later Īśvarpurī initiated into the mysteries of *bhakti* Nīmāi, a young, brilliant, strong-headed pandit from Nadiā who had come to Gayā to perform his father's obsequies. Nīmāi, one of the most notable lovers in history, heard Mādhavendra's gospel and straightway fell in love with Śrī Krishna. "Leave me", he said, "I am not of the world. I will go to Vrindāvan and meet my Lord." He gave up the world to become a *sanyāsin*, and went about like one mad calling upon his Lord. He wandered all over India in search of Vaishnavas. A stern ascetic and a profound scholar, he prayed and sang to his Lover, quivering with emotion like a heart-broken girl. Nīmāi, better known as Chaitanya or Lord Gaurāṅga, soon became the living embodiment of *bhakti*. He revolutionised Vaishnavism.

Chaitanya longed to see Vrindāvan become the centre of the *bhakti* cult. In c 1510 Lokanāth, his follower, founded the headquarters of the Chaitanya sect in the holy grove. In c 1516 two Muslim noblemen became converts to Hinduism, accepted him as their teacher, and took charge of the temple. These two, Rūpa and Sanātana, and their more eminent nephew, Jīva Gosāin, made Vrindāvan a living centre of *bhakti* and learning. Under the influence of the Vrindāvan school, *bhakti* flooded the country. To love Śrī Krishna with the undying passion of a bride became a national religion.

Thus *bhakti* grew into the most creative force in the country, bringing joy to every home and re-vitalising the Aryan culture.

The new *bhakti* impulse spread from Vrindāvan into Gujarāt in the sixteenth century, and, perhaps, the two greatest *bhakti* poets of Gujarāt, Mīrānbāi and Narasimh Mahetā, were influenced by the *sādhus* and *bhaktas* of this sect.

III

Mīrānbāi, the greatest poetess of Western India, was a grand-daughter of Rao Dudājī, chief of Medtā, a small principality in Rājputāna¹. She was born about the year

¹ Another theory makes her a queen of Kumbhā Rānā of Chitōḍ, placing her between 1403 and 1470.

1500, and her grand-father, a devout Vaishnava, influenced her mind from her earliest years. She was married to Bhojarāj, the son of Rānā Sangha of Chītod, but he died c 1517. In 1532, Sangha's younger son, Vikram, came to the throne of Chītod, which was then suffering from the after-effects of Sangha's unsuccessful war with Babar, the founder of the Mogul empire.

The widowed princess forgot the world in the worship of Krishna. Surrounded by *sādhus* and *bhaktas*, she prayed incessantly, singing devotional songs composed by herself. Her association with *sādhus* offended the Rānā's sense of propriety, and he tried to put a stop to it by persecution. But Mīrān's attitude was unyielding.

Girdhar Gopāl is mine, and none else. I have left mother, father, and brother, in company of saints. I have lost all sense of shame. I run to welcome saints, I weep, looking at the world. I have reared an immortal creeper of *bhakti*, watering it with tears of love. The thing has gone forth, every one knows it. Mīrān, the slave of Girdhar, says, what was to happen has happened.²

And in one of her beautiful *padas* she addresses the Rānā thus:

Rānājī! What can I do? My love for Krishna is eternal. Rānā of Mevād! What can I do? I am so tempted. My heart is at peace only when I worship my Rāma, otherwise, I cannot even sleep. The double rosary on my neck is to me a lovely ornament. How can I forget my Lord, my bride-groom in all my past lives?

The Rānā even made an attempt to kill her. Rājput standards had condemned her as a disgrace to the family. In her waking hours, she was a love-lorn cowherdess, beloved of her Lover, living in the imaginary world of Vrindāvan.

- 2 अब तो मेरा गिरधर गोपाल, दूसरा न कोई
माता छोड़ी पिता छोड़े, छोड़े सगा भाई,
साधुसग बैठ बैठ लोकलाज खोई
सत देख दोड़ आई,
प्रेम आसु डाल डाल, अमरवेल बोई.

.
अब तो बात फेल गई, जाने सब कोई,
दास मीरा लाल गिरधर, होनी सो होई

No one knows the pain I feel No, none The wounded and the suffering alone know the plight of the wounded Like a fish, I am dying for water I lie on a bed made of thorns Mīrān's pain will cease only when the physician, Śāmalā, Dark One, comes*

Krishna is a living lover to her She visits Vrindāvan and yearns to see him She hears the flute as its notes rise to the sky He stops her on the way, taking the toll of curds as from other *gopīs* She plays with him, dances the *rāsa* with him She pines away, she is reminiscent "I am mad with love and no one knows it" She is fascinated with Krishna's face

I love your face Enchanting one, I love your face I saw your face and the world has become repulsive My mind has been different since then

Her longing is acute

Kānhudā does not know of my love—my virgin love for Him We went to fetch water from the Jumnā, he sprayed us with water there And the spray was all about us

The Beloved held a *rāsa* in Vrindāvan, he pulled off the raiment of sixteen hundred *gopīs* And the raiment was torn to shreds

Kānā' I am mad after you, you have shot your arrows at me, and the arrows have pierced me through and through.

Bai Mīrān says Lord Girdhar, Kānhudā, has burnt her to death, He has thrown her ashes from a high hill And the ashes are flying about on all sides*

Again she sings

My Girdhar, my Lover, my beloved handsome Dark One' Do not forsake us You have gone to dwell in Mathurā, but do not be cruel

3 दर्द ना जाने मेरा कोई रे, मेरा कोई

घायलकी गत घायल जाने, जा शिर बीती होइ

जल बिना जेसी मछलीही तलपे, सो गत मेरी होइ

सूलि उपर सेज हमारी, तापर रहेवु सोइ

मीराको दु.ख जब मीटेगी, बंद शामरो वोही

4 कानुडे न जाणी मोरी पीर, बाइ हूं तो बाळकुवारी रे—कानुडे०

जल रे जम ना अमे पाणीडां गया'ता बाहाला, कानुडे उडाड्यां आछा नीर;

उड्या फरररररर रे—कानुडे०

वृदारे वनमां बा'ले रास रच्या छे, सोळसे गोपीना ताण्या चीर,

फाट्या चररररररर रे—कानुडे०

हु वरणागी काहाना तमारा रे नामनी रे, कानुडे मार्यां छे अमने तीर;

वाग्यां अररररररर रे—कानुडे०

बाई मीरां के प्रभं गिरघर नागर, कानुडे बाळीने फेंकी उचे गिर;

राख उडे फररररररर रे—कानुडे०

Your flute is still heard, its echoes are about us Without you the pathways of Vraja are hateful

So many stories are told about her that it is difficult to ascertain the facts But one of her *bhajans* sums up her adventures

Govinda is my soul The world repels me, I love only my Rāmājī —I know no other Saints devoted to Hari live in the palace of Mirān Hari lives away from the deceitful, but He lives beside my saints

Rānājī sends a letter Go, and give it into the hands of Mirān “Leave off the company of *sādhus*, come and live with me”

Mirānbāi sends a reply Go, and give it into the hands of Rānājī “Let go your throne and kingdom, come and live with my *sādhus*”

Rānā sends a cup of poison Go, and give it into the hands of Mirān Mirān drank it as if it were nectar, the Lord of the Universe protected her

‘Camelman’ Get the camel ready I have to go a hundred *kosas* It is sinful even to take water in the kingdom of the Rānā” Mirān left Mevād and went to the west She gave up all, for her mind was not with the world

Mirān is the beloved of Hari, she lives in the service of His saints She likes the company of the holy, her heart is away from that deceitful person^o

5 बलिहारि रसिया गिरधारी, सुदर श्याम हो, तजी अमने मथुराना वासी
आवा न बनी ए जी

बासलडी वागी बहाला भणकारा वागे छे,
ब्रजवाट लागे खारी

6 गोविन्दो प्राण अमारो रे, मने जग लाग्यो खारो रे,
मने मारो रामजी भावे रे, बीजो मारी नजरे न आवे रे
मीराबाईना महेलमा रे, हरि सतननो वास,
कपटीथी हरि दूर वसे, मारा सतन केरी पास
राणोजी कागळ मोकले रे, दो राणी मीरांने हाथ,
साधुनी सगत छोडी छो, तमो वसोने अमारो साथ
मीराबाई कागळ मोकले रे, देजो राणाजीने हाथ;
राजपाट तमे छोडी राणाजी, वसो साधुने साथ
विषनो प्यालो राणे मोकल्यो रे, देजो मीराने हाथ;
अमृत जाणी मीरा पी गया, जेने सहाय श्री विश्वनो नाथ
साढवाळा साढ शणगरजे रे, जावु सो सो रे कोश,
राणाजीना देशमा रे मारे, जळ रे पीधानो दोष.
डाबो मेल्यो मेवाड रे, मीरा गई पश्चिम माय,
सरव छोडी मीरा नीसर्या, जेनु मायामा मनडु न काय.
मीरा हरिनी लाडणी रे, रहेती सत हजूर,
साधु सगाते स्नेह घणो, पेला कपटीथी दिल दूर.

Thus Mīrān came to live at Dvārakā in Kāthiāwād. After her departure, Chītod fell on evil days. Its throne changed hands at short intervals. Ultimately, the ruling prince traced its misfortunes to Mīrān's departure from Chītod, and begged her to come back. Mīrānbāī declined to return, but the unfortunate prince wanted her back at any cost. The Brāhmanas entered upon a fast in order to induce her to come. Moved by this, Mīrān went into the temple to ask leave of her Lord, she did it with tears in her eyes, singing her songs, and as she sang, she was merged in the idol of her Lord (c. 1547).

IV

Mīrān is claimed by Gujarāt, Rajputāna and the whole of the Mathurā region and recently the Hindi speaking world as a Hindi poet. But, during the century in which she lived there was only one language in these parts, Old Gujarātī or Old Western Rājasthānī, and it is no wonder that her *padas* are now found in all the different present day varieties of that language. She has not left any long poem, a large number of the *padas* which bear her name are not authentic, but some definitely bear the impress of her pure, noble, and loving personality. Her language is simple, and appealing.

She has only one thing to say, and in consequence, her range is limited. Her poems have elegance and delicacy rather than variety. Her heart is capable of deep feeling, but its expression is limited by her comparative ignorance. Mīrān is not ego-centric, only intense, not voluptuous, nor profound.

But passion, grace, delicacy, melody—Mīrān has all these gifts. Her longing is exquisite, it seizes all hearts, penetrates all souls. Her poetic skill possesses the supreme art of being artless. Sometimes she brings natural beauty to aid sense and sound in producing harmony. An untranslatable harmony characterizes the following.

The peacock's notes are shrill. Rādhā! the peacock's notes are shrill. Peacocks call, *baparyās* call, *koels* sing, the sound fills the air. Lightning glistens, dark clouds thunder. Drizzling rain pours gently,

and as I come to meet you the fringe of my *sārī* is wet Bāī Mirān says, this is charm of my Lord Girīdhār, My Lord has stolen my heart⁸

Mirān's *padas*, some of which are *garabīs*, have been very popular throughout Rajputāna and Gujarāt, and have considerably influenced the literature of succeeding periods

V

Yet another school of *bhakti* arose, known as *Rudra-sampradāya* or *Pushtimārga* Vallabāchārya Goswāmī, a Brāhmana from Telangana born in c 1479, who in early life was a follower of Viṣṇuswāmī, later founded his own school The Goswāmī repeatedly travelled all over India preaching his cult, and naturally came to Gujarāt He founded the shrine of Śrī Nāthajī in Vraja in c 1506 and died c 1531 Vallabha was a scholar more than a *bhakta* His aim was to found a compact sect on the basis of *bhakti* and it was carried out in practice by the initiate taking the vow to dedicate to Lord Śrī Krishna his body, senses, soul, heart and all its activities, as also his wife, house, family wealth and self

Vallabha's son, Vithalanāthajī, a *bhakta*, improved upon his father's doctrines His father, according to him, was not the slave of Śrī Krishna, but Śrī Krishna himself *Rāsalīlā*, in which Vallabha's sons played the part of young Krishna, became a predominant feature of the Goswāmī's existence

'The Āchārya was to be considered a husband of many wives and the centre of *rāsalīlā*, and one whose principal function was to dance the *rāsalīlā*'⁹ The Sahajīā doctrine of self-surrender to the teacher was combined with *bhakti*, and the sect flourished on the degrading self-dedication of its adherents, both men and women, to a religious institu-

8 बोले झीणा मोर, राधे तारा डुंगरिया पर बोले झीणा मोर
मोर ही बोले बपैया ही बोले, कोयल करे घनशोर राधे०

* * भली वीजली चमके, बादल हुवा घनघोर. राधे०

झरझर झरझर मेहुलो वरसे, भीजे मारा साळुडानी कोर राधे०

बाई मीराके प्रभु गिरधरना गुण प्रभुजी म्हारा चित्तडाना चोर राधे०

9 *Vithalesāratnavivaraṇa*, quoted in Munshi, *Thodānk Ras-darśano* (Guj), p 207

tion, the heads of which claimed to be living Śrī Kṛṣṇas. No doubt, some of the *goswāmīs* were learned and led irreproachable lives, and in playing the part they did, were merely systematising existing practices. Thus the *rāsa* dance from a popular festival became a religious ceremony.

Vithalanāthajī came to Gujarāt, founded several temples and acquired a large following. He also inspired Suradāsa and other poets known as the *ashta chhāp* to compose *bhakti* poetry. These poets, all of a very high order, were in a sense the founders of medieval Hindi and Vraja literature and influenced the whole literature of North India. The grandson of Vallabha carried these principles to the logical extreme. Later the practice of a devotee dedicating even his wife to the *āchārya* before marriage was consummated was inculcated. That these theories did not remain innocent abstractions was proved in a case which came before the High Court of Bombay in 1862.

In c. 1570 we see the influence of this sect on Gujarātī literature in Gopāladās's *Vallabhākhyaṇ*. The enthusiastic worshipper looked upon the *goswāmī* as God and described his appearance and pomp with abject admiration. This sect became very popular in Gujarāt, attracting many castes which followed Śaivism or Jainism. Its music, *rāsas* and erotic literature opened a vista of joy before the people.

VI

In the sixteenth century, Narasimh Mahetā voices the new impulse of *bhakti* in Gujarāt. At one time his date was taken as fixed between 1414 and 1480. Results of recent research point to his being placed later than 1500.¹⁰ About the beginning of the seventeenth century his fame as a *bhakta* spread over all the provinces of India. His life, works, and more particularly, the miraculous assistance which Śrī Kṛṣṇa gave him from time to time fired popular imagination, and soon he became the centre of a new mythology of *bhakti*. The first Gujarātī poet to sing of his life was Viśvanāth Jānī (1652).

10 See Note A at the end of the chapter. Vide, Munshi, *Narasimha-Bhakta Hari-no*, Introduction (Guj.), pp. 49-82.



NARASIMH MAHETA

Some incidents of his life are mentioned by the poet himself in works which are undoubtedly his own. Narasimh, born in the village of Talājā near Junāgadh, was a younger son of one Kṛṣṇadās, a Vaḍnagar Nāgar by caste. The Nāgars were, for centuries, the repositories of learning and orthodoxy, and their fierce exclusiveness was then at its height. Narasimh lost his father early, and was left dependent on his elder brother. He associated with itinerant *sādhus*, and was introduced by them to the mysteries of *bhakti* peculiar to Vrindāvan. He sang, danced like a *gopī*, and began to look upon Śrī Kṛṣṇa as a lover. This conduct shocked his castemen who worshipped respectability no less than orthodoxy. His betrothal was broken off. But, after some time, another bride, Mānek-bāī, was found for him.

His brother's wife knew the fine art of hitting those who could not hit back, and Narasimh, by temperament incapable of making money, was made to lead a life of humiliation. The poet confesses

My birth was in Talājā. My brother's wife taunted me and called me a fool. The word pierced me, I went into the forest and worshipped a phallus of Śiva which was lying unworshipped.

Again, at another place he says, "My brother's wife said words which rankled in my mind." For seven days and nights the poor, helpless poet worshipped Gopanāth in a temple situated a few miles from Junāgadh, and at the end the mighty Śiva was propitiated. The god took him to Dvārakā, where the poet saw, with his eyes 'in a fine frenzy rolling', Lord Kṛṣṇa dancing his eternal *rāsālīlā* with the *gopīs*. Humbly, he held the torch, while his Lord danced. With the aid of a highly-strung imagination peopled with the fairy beings of *bhakti* literature, he achieved his heart's desire of establishing living contact with Śrī Kṛṣṇa. "I resolved," he says, "to sing daily of the joy which once I knew, and so tell the world what always lives in my heart." His heart full of love for his Lord, he went and thanked his brother's wife for the favour she had done him.

Blessed are you, my brother's wife. You spoke harsh words, and because of them, I saw the dance of the Lord of cowherds in Gokul, and the Lord of the earth embraced me.

VII

Narasimh left his brother's house, and set up a home of his own in a small, old house. It is identified by tradition with a spot now known as *Narasimh Mahetā-no Choro* in Junāgadh. Mānekbāi bore him a daughter, Kunvarbāi, and later a son, Śāmal. The family was maintained by the generosity of the religious-minded in the town. The poor poet was incorrigible. To people who rebuked him for his habits, he humbly replied, "Such am I, verily such am I. I am exactly such a one as you describe." He collected around him a few simple-hearted worshippers of Śrī Krishna, of both sexes. He composed *padas* or *bhajans* mainly devotional, sometimes philosophic or ethical, very often descriptive of the amours of Rādhā and Krishna, and he spent his days and nights in singing them to the accompaniment of his *karatāl*.¹¹ Ever happy and intoxicated with pure *bhakti*, he lived in an imaginary world, more real to him than the reality of worldly life.

But the *bhakta* had to pay the penalty of belonging to a caste composed of the fastidious. Kunvarbāi married and bore a child, and her father had to give her husband's people presents by way of *mosālā*. Then, Śāmal had to be married. All these ceremonials and social occasions meant money, and the poor Mahetā owned nothing but his *karatāls*, his poor saintly companions, and his unalterable faith in Śrī Krishna. Nāgaris laughed at the penniless fool who believed that his God would help him. But someone always came forward with timely assistance for the godly man. Assistance so rendered came to be regarded miraculous, and the miracles were sung by later poets with faith and feeling.

Narasimh was not a fool, and not merely a poet. His life was inspired by a great philosophy. His heart went out to all men equally, and he sought every opportunity to bring solace to the lowly and the wretched. He derided family pride and caste exclusiveness, and mixed with the

11 *Karatāls* are small cymbals loosely fixed in pieces of wood. They are held in each hand and used to beat the time to vocal music, and are the proverbial accompaniment of *bhajans*.

poor and the untouchables, teaching them *bhakti* He sang

He who leaves his family, worships Hari and bears the taunts of the world, he, say I, Narasimh, he alone will meet Hari Others will live in vain ¹²

But the climax was reached when the proud, orthodox Nāgar Brāhmans of Junāgaḍh found that he had gone to a *dhed*, an untouchable sweeper, to sing *bhajans* They forthwith excommunicated him Tired of social persecution, the saint exclaimed, "O Lord! Do not give me poverty and birth in the Nāgar caste again" ¹³

A semblance of poetic justice is done to Narasimh by later poets by adding another incident to this episode. When the Nāgars were sitting down to a caste-dinner, they saw a *dhed* sitting next to every one of them This vision, however, vanished as soon as they rescinded the decree of excommunication which they had passed against the *bhakta* Many other such incidents have been sung by later poets Once Narasimh received monies and drew a *hundī* on Krishna at Dvārakā, and Krishna, himself honoured the bill of exchange Again, Rā Māṇḍalik, the king of Junāgaḍh, called the poet and, to test his sainthood, asked him to get a garland, *hāra*, from his Lord before morn, threatening him with dire penalties if he failed to do so The *bhakta* prayed the whole night, and Krishna, just as the dawn broke, gave him the coveted garland Both these incidents appear to be based on a later tradition.

Domestic calamities overtook the poet His wife died, and, later, his son His daughter became a widow But the poet was happy as ever, unshaken in his faith and love

Believe me, all worldly happiness is shadowy All things except Krishna are ephemeral ¹⁴

And, singing his love for his divine lover in passionate verse, the great saint, philosopher and poet lived to a ripe old age

12 कुळ तजशे ने हरिने भजशे, सहेशे ससारनु महेणु रे,
भणे नरसेयो हरि तेने मळशे, बीजी वाते बोहणु रे

13 निरधन ने वळी नात नागरी, हरि न आपीश अवतार रे

14 सुख संसारी मिथ्या करी मानजो,
कृष्ण विना बीजु सर्व काचु.

VIII

For centuries, his *padas* have been handed down orally. The followers of Vallabhāchārya considered Narasimh *vadhāi* or messenger of the coming dispensation, and attached special sanctity to his *padas*. The result has been unfortunate. No *pada* is available in the poet's own language, and some of them bear the traces of different authorship. The most notorious instance is that of *Hāramālā* which is supposed to have been composed by the poet to celebrate the occasion when Śrī Krishna gave him a garland of flowers in Rā Māṇḍalik's court. The poet is confronted by representatives of other sects. All of them, including the poet, thereupon break into mutual vituperation. Some *padas* put into the mouth of the poet are in questionable taste, and display narrow-mindedness and arrogance foreign to Narasimh's temperament. The poem came into existence about 1650, it was re-arranged and partly re-written by Premānand or some other poet in 1678, since when it has grown to twice its original size.

Śāmalsā-no vivāh, The Marriage of Śāmal, the poet's son, is an authentic autobiographical poem. The poet described the events of his life: how his brother's wife drove him out, the god Śiva took him to Śrī Krishna, and he saw the *rāsa*, how his saintly wife served him, how a simple-hearted priest came to Junāgadh to find a husband for the daughter of Madan Mahetā, a proud official of Vadnagar, how the priest, fascinated with the saintliness of the poet and the qualities of his son, betrothed the girl to Śāmal. The caste tried to ridicule the match, and the poet, goaded on by his wife, went to Dvārakā to the Lord whose friend he claimed to be. There he found Krishna, who treated him with great friendliness and promised his support. And the Lord of the universe made the marriage procession of the *bhakta* a triumphal march full of pomp. The poet naively describes how the proud Madan Mahetā, when he rushed forward to greet his guest, saw Narasimh Mahetā as a divinity. The marriage was solemnised with éclat, the procession came back to Junāgadh, and the poet humbly adds "The Lord disappeared as Narasimh stood with folded hands."

IX

The bulk of his works consists of *padas*, about seven hundred and forty in number,¹⁵ collected under the name of *Sṛṅgāramālā*, the Rosary of Love. They are the expression of the Chaitanya attitude of mind. To Narasimh, as to Chaitanya and Mīrān, Śrī Kṛṣṇa was the living Bridegroom. He was convinced that he had gone to Dvārakā with God Śāṅkara and held a torch when Śrī Kṛṣṇa danced with Rādhā, and that, all absorbed, he had not even noticed that his hand was scorched as the torch burnt out.

I have held the hand of the great Lord of *gopīs* in pledge of love, I do not care for any one else. My manhood disappeared. I began to sing as a maid. My body was transformed, I was one of the *gopīs*. I intervened as a friend, and soothed the mate lady (Rādhā) with soft words. Then I knew the delicate shades of emotion and sentiment, and felt strange experiences. He who sat and sang with Rādhā lived in my heart thereafter.

Modern prudery has tried in vain to find an esoteric meaning in the *padas*. The voluptuous imagination of the poet had been set on fire by the sex-tinged *bhakti* of Vrindāvan, and it expressed itself in a poetic form sanctioned by the literary tradition of the age and acceptable to the religious sentiments of the author. The *padas* are subjective in their tone.

My Love has played the flute. I cannot stay in the house for a moment. I am so excited. What shall I do to have a look at him? ¹⁶

I clung to Kāñjī's neck, and drank the nectar of his lips. ¹⁷

How shall I go to fetch water? I am pierced by his flute, the tempter's eyes are dancing, I am attracted by his grace. ¹⁸

His eyes are matchless. There is magic in his eyes, they have charmed me with love. How can I go to my house? He has stolen my mind. ¹⁹

15 *Op cit* Introduction, p. 4

16 वासलडी चाई मारे बहाले, मंदिरमा न रहेवाय रे,
व्याकुल थईने बहालाने, जोवा शु कहु उपाय रे

17 कठे विलागी कहानजीने, अवर अमृतरस पीयो रे

18. केम जाउ जळ जमुना भरवा, वासलडीए बेधाणी रे,
कामगगारो नेण नचावे, लटके हु लोभाणी रे

19 लोचन माहे कामग भरीयुं, ते तो हु नेहशु करीयु रे;
केम मंदिर जाउ मारी सजती, माह मन एणे हरियु रे

Tell me, *Sāmaliā*, dear, where had you been? You have forgotten your love of late, you are attracted to a new woman, I am dying for you I have weighed you in the balance ²⁰

My Lord does not speak with me, I cannot live without hearing his words Somehow I bear the separation But what shall I do now? ²¹

Krishna is with the *gopī* and she addresses the moon thus

Don't flicker like a lamp Moon! Be steady, just for once My Love is with me to-night, all shyness is at an end Let not your flame grow faint Look, my lover smiles on me The soul of my soul has met me to-day ²²

Rāsasahasapadī, as it stands at present, consists about one hundred and twenty three *padas*²³ The poem begins by describing the *gopīs* as they came dressed up for the *rāsa* In words well-tuned to the idea, the poet first describes the jingling anklets of the cowherdresses as they run out to meet their lover, and then, in verse after verse, the longing of each *gopī* The *rāsa* begins The *padas* grow more picturesque, now describing the *rāsa*, now depicting the condition of some *gopī* The poet exclaims, as he describes his own part in the *rāsa*

The torch bearer, Narasimh, was Hari's torch-bearer, and his manhood disappeared

The lovely young women shouted '*ther, ther*' as Kāhna appeared with each *gopī* The anklets and girdles and the beat of drums sounded in exquisite harmony The ardent lover danced with ecstasy The resounding melody with its seven notes floated up to the sky The *gopīs*

20 साचु बोलो शामळिया वहाला, कहोने क्या गया' ता रे,
हमणा हेत उतार्यु हरजी, पेली नवल नारशु मन मोह्यु रे,
तमो बिना अमे तलसी मरिये, तोल तमारु जोयु रे

21 मारो नाथ न बोले बोल, अबोला मरिये रे,
हु क्यम करी वेढु बियोग, हवे शु करिये रे

22 दीपकडो लईश मारे चादलिया

स्विर थई रहेजे आज,
वहालोजी विलस्यो हु साथे लोपी सघळी लाज. .
रखे ज्योत तु झाखी करतो पीउडे माड्यु हास्य..
प्राणनो प्राण ते आज मुजने मळ्या.

danced with graceful movements, and pressed him to their hearts, their arms on each other's neck "4

It is a free and elaborate rendering of the *Rāsa* as described in the *Bhāgavata* with possible borrowings from the *Brahmavaiivarta*. His *chāturīs* are again inspired by the *Gīta-govinda*. But Narasimh's *Rāsa sahasrapadī* is not a rendering, nor an adaptation, but a wonderfully vivid picture of a *Rāsa* by one who has seen and dwelt in the vision with all the creative vigour of a highly inflamed imagination. A sentence, a phrase in *Bhāgavata* becomes an exquisite picture of rare beauty. *Vasanta-nān pado*, The Songs of Spring, are in a similar vein, but the subject is the *phāg* festival. *Hindolā-nān pado*, the Songs of the Swing Festival, relate to another popular festivity connected with Śrī Krishna. In both these works, perhaps, the *phāg* literature was being pressed by Narasimh into the service of the *bhakti* cult. These *padas* have given to men and women in Gujarāt a glimmer of romance, of love, of the joy of life, which their humdrum every-day existence denied them.

X

The next group of poems relates to the episodes in Śrī Krishna's life as described in the canto X of the *Bhāgavata*. They are on the same model as the *rāsa*, each being a series of short *padas*. They are *Śrī Krishna janm* dealing with the birth of Śrī Krishna, *Bālalīlā* describing his sports as an infant, *Nāgadaman* dealing with the well-known incident of his bringing back a ball which had fallen into the river Yamunā and incidentally vanquishing a cobra, *Dānalīlā* and *Mānalīlā* relating the story of how Śrī Krishna extracted the toll of curds from the *gopīs*, and *Sudāmācharitr*, the story of an old friend, needy and poor, who went to seek the aid of Śrī Krishna, and *Govindagaman*, departure of Govind, relates the episode of

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24. थैइ थैइ करे अगणित अगना, गोपी गोपी प्रत्ये सोहे कान;
झाझर नेपुर कटि तणी कींकणी, ताल मृदग रस एकतान.
नाचता नाचता, छेले छेदे भर्यो, सप्त स्वर धुन ते गगन चाली;
लटके लटका करे, नायने उर घरे, परस्पर बाहेडी कंठ घाली.

Akrūr taking away Śrī Kṛishna from Gokul These were composed at different periods of his life, the last was composed, as he himself tells us, in his old age As *ākhyāns*, they indicate a more advanced stage than those of Bhālan's but less advanced than Premānand's They are not literal translations of the originals, nor are they, in presentation and substance, independent works representing Gujarātī life The author knows the text well The original episode is changed, unified by the poet's imagination, it is reproduced as a fresh story, though not different from the Purānic original in incident and character

Suratasamgrām, the Battle of Love,²⁵ which describes a boyish prank of Śrī Kṛishna, is an independent creation both in conception and execution It is a work of higher literary value than many other *ākhyāns*

On an early spring morn, when the birds are singing gaily, Rādhā, with ten friends, goes to sell curds She meets Śrī Kṛishna who, with ten of his friends, is out to gather his toll of curds Śrī Kṛishna abuses Rādhā Angry like a feminine Rudra incarnate, she catches hold of Śrī Kṛishna Śrī Kṛishna attacks the young cowherdess, a battle ensues, but is suspended on the sudden appearance of Śrī Kṛishna's father, Nanda The belligerents conceal themselves for a while, and when Nanda passes on, meet again They decide to meet on a full moon night to resume battle Rādhā is determined to fight fiercely "The vanquished must become the victor's slave," she says

When the full moon night arrives, Rādhā and her friends emerge from their houses, ready for the fray, each little amazon selecting her antagonist Rādhā writes out a message calling upon the enemies to surrender, as luck would have it, Narasimh is present, and is entrusted with the letter The young cowherds, on the other side, take counsel whether or not to yield to their fair opponents

25 This work, reminiscent of the modern feminist attitude, is challenged recently by Prof K. K. Shastri as a later forgery and classed among the Baroda forgeries (vide post) This would explain the vigour and vividness of incidents and characterisation

One advises a prudent surrender "There is no joy for you in victory, no dishonour in defeat" But Śrī Kṛṣṇa refuses to submit to women In the meantime, Narasimh comes along with the message, is taken to be a thief, and is beaten He is, however, saved by Śrī Kṛṣṇa The poet asserts his dignity as an ambassador, hands over the message, and, turning an ardent feminist, advises the young men to surrender He says, "Do not think that it is so easy to vanquish women The lioness is more powerful than the lion, and, so is the cowherdess, strong and tough" But his advice is rejected, the young cowherds begin their march, and send Jayadeva, the author of the *Gītāgovinda* whom Narasimh considered his comrade in the Lord's service, with a message demanding immediate submission Rādhā scornfully rejects the demand, saying, "We are the primal forces of life, mothers of men, gods and demons Have you seen the seed without soil?"

The *pourparlers* having failed, the armies march against each other Kisses, embraces, 'side-long glances shooting from winsome eye-brows', and many other unmentionable missiles are valiantly exchanged The poet takes his humble share in the fight In the first round the amazons defeat the young cowherds, but Śrī Kṛṣṇa rushes to their rescue Rādhā is overpowered at first, but recovers her ground She goes back to her friends and shoots an 'arrow of Anxiety'! The cowherds run for their lives, some fall, Śrī Kṛṣṇa faints He has to be carried away from the battlefield by his friends The fair warriors, flushed with victory, pursue the fleeing men to the very outskirts of Vraja And lovely Rādhā, having vanquished the lord of cowherds, marches on, occupying his territory

Prabhāṭiā, the measure which in Narasimh's other *padas* is full of soft slow moving word music, often takes on a martial air The march, the fight, the defiant messages are described with vigour, sound matching sense The personality of Rādhā emerges from the poem with a vividness quite modern and rare in the literature of the age Determined, proudly defiant, and lovelier by far than any other heroine in Old Gujarāṭi literature, her portrait would be a

piece of unusual creative art for the age if the poem is authentic ²⁶

XI

But Narasimh's style is at its best in the *padas* of *bhakti* and *jñāna*, philosophy. They present the different aspects of the real Narasimh, the Vedāntin, the iconoclast who defied the existing formulae of life and for whom self-surrender to his all-pervading Master was real and complete, the man who cheerfully bore the cross of worldly afflictions, his faith in the goodness of his Lord unshaken, the saint whose heart went out to all. His creed was positive, his experience expressed itself in noble and touching eloquence, making his *padas* a living source of faith and inspiration.

What avails it if one takes his bath and offers worship? What avails it to sit in the house and give money in charity? What use is it to have studied all the six philosophies? To have preserved caste distinctions? These are but tricks to gain a living. Narasimh says: "Who knows not the Supreme Soul that dwells within him, who sees not the Essence of all things, he has wasted his life, precious as the *chintāmanī* jewel."

His Vedāntism is highly practical.

You will never find the truth by making nice distinctions between soul, God and Supreme Soul. Narasimh says: "When you forget I and Thou then alone will the Master help you."

The *dheds*, sweepers, invite him to sing his *bhajans*. He agrees to go. "Where distinctions come in, God departs. To the eye of the dispassionate, all are equal."²⁹

26 There is an amazing resemblance between the prevailing ideas and sentiments of Narasimh's poetry and the basic concepts of Sufism and Self-effacement, rapturous union with the Divine Beloved, the ultimate Reality, and the obliteration of all distinction between "I" and "Thou". The sentiments here expressed are a striking echo of those frequently to be found in great Persian Sufi poets like Rūmī. It is remarkable how the concept of mysticism and the yearning and aspiration of the initiated, the emancipated soul, in all creeds and countries, are fundamentally the same, and find expression in similar language.

27 શું થયું સ્નાન સેવા ને પૂજા થકી ? શું થયું ઘેર રહી દાન દીધે ?

શું થયું હૃદયદર્શન સેવા થકી ? શું થયું વરણના ભેદ આળે ?

એ છે પરપચ સહુ પેટ ભરવા તળા આત્મારામ પરિબ્રહ્મ ન જોયો,

મળે નરસૈયો તત્ત્વદર્શન વિના રત્નચિત્તામણિ જન્મ લોયો

28 જીવે ईश्वर અને બ્રહ્મના ભેદમા, સત્ય વસ્તુ નહિ સદ્ય જડશે,

હું અને તુષણ તજીશ નરસૈયા તો, ગુરુ તને હર્ષથી પાર પાડશે.

29. પક્ષાપક્ષી ત્યા નાહિ પરમેશ્વર, સમદૃષ્ટિને સર્વ સમાન.

The poet goes amongst the untouchables and prays In the morning he returns, singing and keeping time with his *karatāl* The Nāgars, his castemen, laugh at him What kind of Brāhman is this, herding with untouchables? The poet is silent They say, "You don't know caste distinctions" He bows low with folded hands and replies, "Yes! I have only the support of the Vaishnavas" He defiantly sings

I am such a man, I am such a one as you say In the whole of the society I alone am wicked, yea, more wicked than the wicked You may call me what you like, but my love is deeper I am Narsaiyo of the wicked deeds, but the Vaishnavas alone are dear to me He who believes himself superior to the worshipper of Hari has led his life in vain³⁰

According to him, Vaishnava is not one who worships Vishnu, he is the flower of Aryan culture He describes it in a verse which Mahātmā Gāndhī has made the hymn of his life

He is the real Vaishnava who feels others' sufferings as his own He serves those who are afflicted and has no conceit He bows before everyone, despises none, is steady in word, body and mind Blessed is the mother of such a man His outlook is always dispassionate, he has left all desires, he sees a mother in another man's wife He never speaks an untruth, and touches no one's wealth Ignorance does not overpower him, his mind knows stern detachment He has experienced ecstasy in the worship of Rāma, his body in itself possesses all places of pilgrimage He has no avarice, he knows no fraud, he has outgrown desire and anger Narsaiyā says To look at such a man is to earn merit enough to save seventy-one generations from hell³¹

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- 30 एवा रे अमो एवा, तमे कहो छो वळी तेवा रे,
सघळा साथमा हु एक भुडो, भुडाथी वळी भुडो रे;
तमारे मन माने ते कहेजो, स्नेह लायो छे मने ऊडो रे
हळवा कर्मनो हु नरसेयो, मुजने तो वैष्णव बहाला रे;
हरिजनथी जे अतर गणेश, तेना फोगट फेरा ठाला रे.
- 31 वैष्णवजन तो तेने कहीए, जे पीड पराड जाणे रे;
परदु.खे उपकार करे ते, मन अभिमान न आणे रे
सकळ लोकमा सहने वदे, निदा ते न करे केनी रे,
वाचकाछमन निश्चळ राखे तो, धन्य धन्य जननी तेनी रे.
समदृष्टि ने तृष्णा त्यागी, परस्त्री जेने मात रे,
जीह्वा थकी असत्य न बोले, परधन नव झाले हाथ रे

This was for our poet no academic description of the Aryan code of ethics. It was a flaming truth, which the poet had felt and lived all his life, uttered in immortal words. In some of his *padas* the poet expresses himself with great poetic eloquence. In one such *pada*, Nara-simh has risen to a power of conception and expression, a solemn majesty of noble, resounding utterance, which has scarcely been improved upon by any other author in the language.

Look at the sky, see Who pervades it, uttering the words 'I am He', 'I am He' At the feet of the Dark One, would I die, for there is none here who can compare with Krishna. My mind, lost in one endless festive mood, cannot fathom the great, dark splendour. Know the animate and the inanimate as one, lovingly hold fast to the life eternal. Look there—where the flaming light shines out of a millior rising suns, where the heavens are ablaze with a golden mantle, there, the Supreme sports in joy, swinging in a golden cradle. There, without wick or oil or thread, burns bright the fiery lamp, unwavering and everlasting. Let us see, but not with eyes, Him who is Formless. Let us drink in the delicious joy of this vision, but not with tongues. He is the Unknowable, the Deathless swinging high and low. The Lord of Narsaiyā is omnipresent. The saints alone can catch Him in the web of their love.²²

The *bhakta* of a personal Krishna merges in the philosophic saint, expressing the two-fold vision in one great word picture.

મોહમાયા વ્યાપે નહિ તેને, દૃઢ વૈરાગ્ય જેના મનમા રે,
રામનામસું તાઢી રે લાગી, સકલ તીરથ તેના તનમા રે
વગલોભી ને કપટરહિત છે, કામક્રોધને નિવાર્યા રે,
મળે નરસંયો તેનું દરસન કરતા, કુલ ઇકોતેર તાર્યા રે.

- 32 નીરખને ગગનમા કોળ ઘુમી રહ્યો, તે જ હુ તે જ હુ શબ્દ બોલે,
શ્યામના ચરણમા ઇચ્છુ છું મરણ રે, અહિયા કોઈ નયો કુલગ તોલે
શ્યામ શોભા ઘણી બુદ્ધિ ના શકે કઢી, અનન ઓછવમા પવ મૂલી,
જડ ને ચૈતન રસ કરી જાણવો, પકડી પ્રેમે સજીવન મૂઢી
જલહલ જ્યોત ડહોત રવિ કોટમા, હેમતી કોર જ્યા નીસરે તોલે,
સચ્ચિદાનંદ આનંદકોડા કરે, સોનાના પારણા માહી ફૂલે
બત્તી વિગ, તેલ વિગ, સૂત્ર વિગ, જો વઢી, અવલ શલકે સદા અનલ દીવો,
નેત્ર વિગ નીરખવો, રૂપ વિગ પરખવો, વળ જિહ્વાએ રસ સરસ પીવો
અકલ અવિનાશી એ નવ જ જાયે કઢ્યો, અરધ ડરધની માહે મહાલે,
નરસંયો ચો સ્વામી સકલ વ્યાપી રહ્યો, પ્રેમના તંતમા સત શાલે.

XII

Thus, lived and sang the noblest figure of vanished Gujarāt

He dedicated thought, word, and deed to Śrī Kṛishna. He placed all his desires and hopes at his feet. As he carried on this alchemic process, he outgrew his sensuality. His *bhakti* turned spotless, the love as of a *gopī*, which he cherished, grew measureless. He saw his Lover in all men. 'Who sees Me everywhere, who sees all in Me' was not a mere phrase to Narasimh, nor an idea, but a plain, living fact. He realised *Īśvarapranidhāna*—forsaking all, he placed himself in His hands. And the stifling bonds of existence fell away from him. He came to be the embodiment of the Idea on which great souls from Vyāsa, Christ and Augustine to Chaitanya and Mahātmā Gāndhī have built the fabric of life. Awake or asleep, his days were an eloquent commentary on the great truth perceived by Lord Vedavyāsa.

'Fix thy mind on Me alone, let thy will sink in Mine

So shall thou abide in Me alone—for ever, there's no doubt.'

The legacy of rich and varied vocabulary and language of great power and beauty which he left, exercised a great influence on literature. His *padas*, cast into the slow-moving and elastic *prabhātī* metre generally reserved for early morning prayers, moulded the language and sentiments of succeeding generations. His taste is often loud and vulgar. He lacks the delicacy of Mīrān, the intensity of Sūradāsa, the classic dignity of Tulasīdāsa. His language is too rhetorical to permit of that light, lingering touch which makes for great poetry. But he broke away from the lifeless literary tradition of his days. He changed Gujarātī poetry from an impersonal to a personal art. Poet, *bhakta*, apostle of Aryan culture—Narasimh was, and is, unique in Gujarāt.

NOTE A THE AGE OF NARASIMH MAHETA

When the knowledge of early Gujarātī literature first began to be acquired, some scholars conferred upon Narasimh the honour of being the first poet both in date and merit. As will appear from the text, the literature had its beginnings at least three centuries prior to the date, 1414-1480, tentatively fixed for Narasimh by these scholars. (1) This date was chiefly based upon the year 1512 (A V) given in *Hāramālā*, a poem attributed to Narasimh, as the date when Rā Māndalik of Junāgadh (c. 1433-1473) put his samthood to test

Haramālā, however, is not composed by Narasimh himself, but is the work of some later poet, the legend of the garland apart from its intrinsic improbability has no historic basis, and the belief that Narasimh and Māṇḍalik were contemporaries has nothing in its support except the poem itself, the existence of which cannot be traced beyond c 1650 (2) Further, the earliest authentic reference to Narasimh himself is in a work of the grandson of the Vaishnava *goswāmī* Viṭhala-nāthjī, composed about 1600 (3) The Gujarātī poets of the fifteenth and the sixteenth century, most of whom were *bhaktas* or *purāniks*, had no knowledge of him and do not bear any trace of his influence (4) The first reliable reference to him in Gujarāt itself is in 1652, and the available manuscript of none of his alleged works can be placed before that (5) Govindadāsa's diary of his and Chaitanya's visit in August 1511 to a temple of Ranachhodjī, at Junāgadh is silent about this the greatest *bhakta* of Śrī Krishna as Ranachhodjī, who made Junāgadh itself famous amongst the *bhakti* cults of India (6) The *bhakti* of Narasimh bears traces of the Vrindāvan school which spread over the country about 1500 The date of Narasimh, therefore, can reasonably be placed in the sixteenth century, somewhere between 1500 and 1580 Pursuing a doubt raised by Principal Anandshankar Dhruva, I went into the question in *Gujarātī Sāhitya* (1927), and more elaborately again in the introduction to *Narsaiyo Bhakta Hari-no* (1933) Narsinhrao Divatia in his Vassonjī Lectures, *Gujarati Language and Literature*, while criticising some of my arguments, has admitted the validity of the doubt as to the orthodox date and the necessity of bringing it later Many later critics have all combated my conclusions Govindadāsa's *Kāchha* is challenged as a forgery And Narasimh's *bhakti* is even traced to the Vārakari Saints of Mahārāshtra, in my opinion, in a way not justified by Narasimh's attitude throughout his authentic works Of such critics Prof K K Shastri has been the most prominent But I find in these critics an attempt at scoring points rather than a dispassionate survey of the problem I remain unconvinced about the authenticity of *Hāramālā*, and the alleged influence on the poet of *bhakti* cults other than that which sprang up in Vrindāvan

CHAPTER V
POPULAR FICTION
(1360-1652)

Original sources—Gunādhya—Folk stories common to Brāhmana and Jain works — Characteristics — Ethical motive — Love — *Ākhyana* and *Kathā*—*Vetālapanchavimsatikā* 1360—*Simhāsana-dvātrimsikā* (1463)—*Pañchatantra*—*Śukasaptatī*—*Mādhavānala dogdhaka-prabandha* — *Chaurapanchāsikā* — *Mārudholāchupā* (1541)—*Vidyāvīlās-no Pavāḍo* (1429)—*Śilavatī-no Rāsa*—*Sadayavats ane Sāvalingā*—Jain legendary literature—*Lāvanyasamay* (1485) — *Vimalaprabandh* — *Nayasundar* (1560-1620) — *Rūpa-chandrakunvararās*—*Kusumasrīrās* (1652)

FROM prehistoric times, India possessed a fascinating wealth of folk-lore. Literary men from Bhāsa downwards have drawn freely upon it, and all literatures, Sanskrit, Prākṛit, Apabhramśa, Old and Modern, glisten with its golden threads.

I

The *Jātakas* were a rich storehouse to draw upon. Gunādhya, the author of the lost *Bṛihat-kathā* in Paisācī Prākṛit, was looked upon as the father of popular fiction, and *Kathāsaritsāgara* (1063), an edition of the work abridged by Somadeva, true to its name, was the ocean where met the rivers of popular imagination. Kshemendra composed a similar collection of tales under the title *Bṛihat-kathāmañjarī*. *Pañchatantra*, another such collection, was translated into Pehlvi in the sixth century, and into Italian and English early in the sixteenth century. Some of the stories in the Arabian Nights can be traced to early Indian sources. Other favourite sources drawn upon by Indian authors were *Vetālapañchavimsatikā*, *Simhāsana-dvātrimsikā* and *Śukasaptatī*.

With classical influence on the wane, fiction came into popular favour in Gujarāt, and many authors diverted their attention from religious to secular literature. Even *dharmakathās* were presented as pictures of real life. In the hands of Bhālan as we saw, even the Purāṇic *ākhyāyikās* developed a tendency to become popular tales.

The stories composed in Gujarāt depicted life as it was before the Muslim invasion of the country. They were not, as was once believed, the handiwork of any particular section of writers either Brāhmana or Jain. Long before the versions now available to us were composed, their originals had become indispensable to the masses as a source of enlightenment and entertainment in the whole of India.

These stories, unlike *dharmakathās*, were not allegorical, nor did the didactic element in them subordinate the human. They were romances, pure and simple. A characteristic common to them was predominance of the miraculous. Witchcraft, incantation, transformation of the human body, revival of the dead, transition from one body into another were freely introduced. Fantastic adventures were no less common. Many of them had bourgeois setting, and described voyages and commercial enterprises. Robbery, seduction and kidnapping were by no means neglected.

They portrayed a free society, unknown to this period. They spoke of co-education, of women, free, educated and versed in the fine arts, of headstrong feminists, of hetairae, highly cultured and loyal, of a certain degree of general education. Love, intense and spontaneous, or the betrayal of it, provided the principal motive, and ordinarily the miseries of lovers, sundered by accident or design, sustained the sentimental interest of the story. The outstanding shortcoming of this class of literature was failure to delineate human character. The hero of one story was like the hero of another, so was the heroine, and so were the king and the hetairae—wooden and stereotyped.

Prahelikā, or a riddle, was a literary feature which they had inherited from their Sanskrit forbears. Daṇḍin mentions sixteen kinds of *prahelikās*¹ and even fifty years ago, solving riddles or *koydās* was a popular pastime in Gujarāt. Heroine after heroine goes about offering meaningless or even obvious riddles to men, after having solemnly resolved to marry only the happy suitor who is clever enough to solve them. Perhaps, in an age of ignorance, this was the

1 *Kāvya-darśa* III, 96-124

only kind of cleverness which appealed to intelligent women

II

The source largely drawn upon for these stories was the *Vetālapañchavimśatikā*. Chandragupta II, the Gupta Emperor and the traditional Vikramāditya of Ujjayinī, is the hero of these miraculous tales. A *yogī* asked Vikram to carry, without uttering a single word, a corpse hanging on a tree to a place where miraculous powers could be acquired by certain processes. The king took down the corpse, when the ghoul, Vetāl, residing in it, began to tell a story. At the end of the story, the ghoul put a question to the king. The king, forgetting the *yogī's* injunction, gave a reply, upon which the corpse disappeared, and was seen again hanging on the tree. This incident is repeated twenty-five times, and every time Vetāl produces an interesting story.

Vikramāditya, styled *paradukhabhanjan*, the reliever of people in distress, is the King Arthur of India. At one time there was scarcely a house in Gujarāt, perhaps in many parts of India, where his exploits were not listened to with rapt attention. Śāmal compares their recital with the *Rāmāyana*. The first available work on these legends in old Gujarātī is by Devaśīla (1567). Up to c. 1668 as many as five poets had composed works on these legends.

Another popular work is *Simhāsanadvātrīmsīkā*, composed by the *sādhu* Kshemankara from original sources in Māhārāshtrī Prākṛit. In these tales, King Bhoj of Ujjayinī discovers the throne of Vikram, on which are carved thirty-two statuettes. Every time Bhoj desires to seat himself on the throne, one of the statuettes asks him not to do so till he has been as generous and helpful as Vikram. Thus each statuette in succession tells a story relating the exploits of Vikram. The first available version of these stories in Old Gujarātī is composed by Malayachandra in c. 1463. Many authors wrote about them till c. 1721, when Śāmal Bhat re-wrote them.

Pañchatantra was revised in the thirteenth century by Pūrnabhadra, a Jain *sādhu* of Jhālōr. In the fifteenth century, this work was twice rendered into Old Gujarātī.

Sukasaptatī was another fruitful source of popular tales. A man left for a foreign country, and, in his absence, his wife was tempted to break the marital vow. But her parrot was a clever bird. Every night, as the woman was tempted to leave the house in pursuit of a love adventure, it started telling a story about a woman who extricated herself from difficulties. At a thrilling point in the story, the parrot would ask the woman how the heroine should act. When she confessed her inability to offer a way out, the parrot would tell her not to leave the house that night if she wanted to hear the solution. Thus, on every one of the seventy nights, the woman, attracted by a fresh story, gave up her intention of seeking a paramour. At the end of the period, the fortunate husband returned to find his wife as inviolate as when he had left her. The first Gujarātī version (c 1582) of these stories is by Ratnasundar, a Jain *sādhū*. Tales of conjugal perfidy were always heard with avidity, then as now.

Popular imagination, highly exercised over Vikram, produced a number of other tales independently of Sanskrit sources. Mangalamānek, a *sādhū*, composed about c. 1582 *Vikram ane Khāprāchorarāsa* based on such a tale. Similar tales were also told about Siddharāj who, to Gujarātīs, was a replica of Vikram in valour and generosity. In c 1549 Matīsāra composed a work called *Karpūra-manjarī*, in which a statuette on the famous Rudramāla temples at Siddapur tells a story of her love. In c 1607 Kanakasundara composed a *Karpūramanjarī rāsa*.

III

Another tale of wild, romantic love which fascinated Gujarāt was borrowed from *Kāmakundalā Nāṭaka* of Ānandadhara (c 1300). It appears to have been popular both in North India and the Deccan, for we find it adapted both in Hindi and Marāṭhī. Ganapatī, a son of Narasā Kāyastha, composed a *Mādhavānala-dogdhaka-prabandha* in Old Gujarātī at Āmod in c 1528. It had evidently a wide appeal, for one of its copies was found in Bikaner.²

² Vide, Majumdar's article in *Gujarātī Sāhitya*, p 411 (Guj.)

Ganapati's work consists of 2500 *dogdhaka* verses, and is inspired by a *Madan Purāṇa*, a Purāṇa of Love Kuśalā-lābha wrote a *Mādhav-kāmakundalā rāsa* in c 1560, Śāmal gave his own version of it and called it *Mādhavānala*, and a play based on it evoked interest even in modern times

In the city of Pushpāvati, where Kāmasen rules, lives a Brāhmaṇa youth by name Mādhav, 'as handsome as Love' The women of the town run after him, and the citizens beseech the king to get rid of so fruitful a source of trouble The king, in a judicious mood, tries to test the intensity of the fascination exercised by the boy by bringing him before his queens Finding him, however, a danger to his own domestic peace, the king promptly banishes him

Mādhav, wandering from place to place, comes to Amarāvati His extraordinary intelligence immediately draws the attention of the local king, who gives him an honoured place in his court A hetaira, Kāmakundalā, the favourite of the king, is at the moment dancing Mādhav watches her performance Admiring her skill in dancing, undisturbed even by a bee which alights on her dress, he presents to her the very betel leaf, *bidā*, which the king had presented to him as a mark of honour The king, angry at the scant courtesy shown by Mādhav to the royal present, orders him to leave the town The young man with the curse of beauty upon him, while on his way to leave the city, meets Kāmakundalā She invites him to her house The two meet, both fall in love with each other, exchange spicy riddles and their spicier solutions and are happy In the morning, both part from each other with breaking hearts Ganapati puts the following prayer in Kāmakundalā's mouth

The fair one whispers thus "Mādhav, pray do not go I will get a subterranean room made, and keep you there If you like, I will lock you up in my heart But do not move a step away from me If you hide yourself in my eyes, I shall screen you with collyrium I fall at your feet, I beg of you, do not go to a foreign land Come to the mirror, and I will close you in with my arms around your neck (as a bee is enclosed in a lotus), the sun, when he rises, may open all other petals, but not the knot I will have tied you with I will wear you

inside the knot of my braid, as Lord Siva wears Gangā I am a forlorn woman, I weep in distress My Lord, do not leave me”³

He goes to Ujjayinī, and describes his distress in verses, which he writes on the wall of a temple Wandering in disguise about the city at night, as was his wont, to discover the miseries of his subjects, King Vikram reads the verses, and he employs a dancing girl to find their love-lorn author Mādhav is found, and, is brought to King Vikram Apprised of the hero's love for Kāmakundalā, the 'reliever of distress' forthwith calls upon Kāmasen to give her up, and, on his refusal to do so, marches upon his city with an army

Vikram, however, wants to test the strength of Kāmakundalā's love He goes to her in disguise and tries in vain to win her for himself As a further test, he informs her that Mādhav is dead On hearing of the death of her lover, Kāmakundalā falls unconscious, and is on the point of death The king comes back to his camp, and informs Mādhav of her death The poor lover also faints Vikram, horror-struck at having killed a Brāhmana, wants to commit suicide The spirit Vetāl, his friend from the other world, comes to his rescue, and revives the lovers They are married by the king with great pomp, and the lovers live happily ever afterwards The Gujarātī poets have worked into this tale a history of the previous births of the lovers after the style of *Taraṅgalolā*

Chaurapanchāsikā is another love-story in Sanskrit which attracted the attention of Gujarātī authors Bilhana, a poet from Kāshmir, so runs the story, fell in love with the daughter of Kshitipāl, a king of the Punjab The father

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- 3 माधव तुम्हो म चालिसिउ गोरी जपइ गूझ ।
 भलू कराविशि भइइ माहि राखिशी तुझ ॥
 कहि तु कालिज माहा घर राख हृदय मझारि ।
 मूझनि मूकी माधवा पगलु रखे पधारि ॥
 आविस माधवउ आखि माहा आडि काजल देशि ।
 पगी लागू छउ पीड तुझ म म जाइसि परदेशि ॥
 आव आरीसामाहि तु बभण बाधु कठि ।
 खितिपति खुलइ खप करी किम्हइ न छूटइ गठि ॥
 आज आमोडामाहि धरु ईशतणइ जिम गग ।
 हु विलपति विरहिणि स्वामी म छडसि सग ॥

discovering his daughter's infatuation for the poet, banished him from his kingdom. The heart-broken poet poured forth his feelings of sorrow and despondency in the fifty verses of this work.⁴ Some Gujarātī poet has prefixed another poem of seventy-four verses to this one, giving a local turn to this romantic incident. According to this poem, King Vīrasinh of Pātan employs Bilhana to teach his daughter Śaśikalā. The teacher and the pupil fall in love with each other and are secretly married. When the king discovers the marriage he sentences the poet to death. This story has been worked upon by Jñānāchārya in his *Bilhanakāvya* (c 1500). Śāmal Bhat has incorporated the story in his *Madanamohanā*.

IV

Māṇudholāchupārī by Kuśalalābha (c 1561) is based on the romance of Dholā and Māru, the earliest work thereon being the old Rājasthānī *Dholā-Mārurā Duhā* which is one of the most valuable gems of the Medieval literature of North India. Another version by an unknown poet was composed in c 1601, and yet another was written in c 1616 by Ānandodaya. Dayabhai, a modern dramatist, has drawn upon the story for his play, *Umā-Devdī*.

The language of Kuśalalābha's work, parts of which are in prose, presents the Rājasthānī aspect of Old Gujarātī. The plot is realistic, and the sentiments and imagery have an old-world flavour. It is a beautiful love-poem of old Gujarāt, fresh with local colour. The note of love sounds true and intense in its appeal as in no other poem of the age. The poet unequivocally admires the sentiment of *Śṛṅgāra*. 'It is the principal among the nine *rasas*. It pleases the gods, it is the friend of women. Respect for the plighted word, affection, humour, pathos, voluptuousness, laughter, love, and the joy of reunion, all are found in it.'

In the city of Pungal in Mārswād, lived king Pingal. He receives an offer to marry Umādevī, the beautiful daughter of Sāmantasimha of Jhālor. Umā has already been twice betrothed, once to the king of Pātan, and again

4 Sir Edwin Arnold has rendered the work in English.

to the king of Junāgaḍh. But the mother of the princess dislikes Gujarāt. "Gujarāt is full of diseases and lunatics. Weak men and shameless women live there. How can we give the princess to such a country?" Ultimately, recourse is had to a trick, the date of marriage is fixed, but the kings of Junāgaḍh and Pātan are informed of it so late as not to permit of a journey from their capitals to Jhālōr. On the appointed day, Pīngal alone is present, and is married to Umā.

Umā gives birth to Māru, short for Māruvanī, 'whose body is as fragrant as *kastūrī*'. When she is a year and a half old, a famine overtakes the land, and Pīngal and his people seek a more favoured land near Pushkaratīrth. Nala, the king of Nalavaragadh, comes there on a pilgrimage with his queen and a three-year-old boy, Sālhakumār whose pet name is Dholā.

The two kings become friends, and cement their friendship by marrying the baby Dholā with the infant princess. Nala then returns to his own country and, through time and distance, becomes indifferent to the marriage of his little son. Dholā grows up ignorant of his marriage, and is married to Mālavanī, a princess of Mālhwā.

Dholā, who is fond of horses, makes friends with a horse-dealer. The horse-dealer, when he goes to Pungal, learns to his surprise that the king's daughter has been married to his friend Dholā, and is awaiting an invitation from her husband. He informs Pīngal's men about Dholā's marriage with the princess of Mālhwā. The information reaches Māru. With an aching heart, she goes about sending messages to the husband whom she has loved from infancy. Piteously she addresses a *sārāsa* bird in the lake.

Bird! lend me your wings, I shall ever be grateful. Flying across the seas, I will go, meet my lover, and then give them back to you. This land of the North is oppressive, my heart lives in the South⁵.

But the bird does not listen to her. It flies away. 'Unfortunate indeed is she who has been deserted by her mate'

- 5 कुरजां आपो पंषडी थाको बिनो बहेस ;
सायर लंबे प्रीउ मिला, प्रीउ मिल पाछी देस.
उतर दिस उपराठीया, दिषण सामु हीयाह.

In distant Nalavaragaḍh, Dholā's mother lets fall a reference to the marriage in the presence of her son, who thus comes to know of the wife he has married in infancy. But the jealousy of his wife, Mālavanī, is roused. She causes messengers from Pungal to be killed, so that no message of Māru is ever delivered to her husband.

King Pīngal is surprised that none of his messengers ever return. Finally, Māru sends her message through wandering minstrels.

Wanderer! Give a message to Dholā. Come to me soon, beloved! Without you, your bride is heart-broken, a bow without the string. Love! If you do not come by the beginning of Śrāvana, the lightning will fall, and I shall die in fear. Day and night, I weep, for I am lonely without you. Daily I worship the direction in which you live, my eyes have not closed in sleep since you left. Love, come soon. Else, be assured, the crows will fly over the dead body of Māru" ⁶

The message reaches Dholā. He wants to leave for Pungal, but Mālavanī, anxious to keep him to herself, induces him to put off his visit on one excuse or another.

Now, my beloved, the rains have come, the roads are muddy, the creepers cling to the trees, women, to men."

Dholā sends a bard with a message to Māru, and prepares to go, in spite of the protests and wails of Mālavanī. The latter even requests the riding camel to feign lame-

6 पथी एक सदेसडो, ढोलानै समजाय ;

विहलो आवे बलहा .
तो विण धण बीलषी फिरै, गूण विण लाल कबाण

जो तु ढोला नावीयो, श्रावण पैहली तीज ,
संहरा षवेशी बीजली, मुध मरेसी षीज.

हु रनी निसद्धि भरि, सुणि ढोला तु जोय ,
जिण दिस तुं सजन वसै, तिण दिस मोहि सलाम ,
जबथी हम तुम वीछडे, तबथी नयणे नीद हाराम.

ढोला आज्यौ वेगसुं, न आया तो निमलेस ,
मारु तणै करंकडै, वायस उडावेस.

7. पावस आयो प्रीतम, पगे विलंबी गार, बना विलाबी वेलडी, नरा विलाबी नार

ness, but all her efforts to put obstacles in the way of her impatient husband are in vain. She is, however, successful in exacting a promise from him that he will not start on his journey as long as she is awake. Mālavanī then tries to give up sleep, but nature is too strong for her, and one day, as she falls asleep, Dholā takes the road to Pungal. Mālavanī wakes up to find her husband gone and bewails her lot.

Cursed is the land which has no mountain. If there had been one here, I would have thrown myself from it. Love, I go mad when I see a bed, like a black cobra, it poisons me.

She sends a parrot to bring her husband back. The parrot flies to Dholā, and tells him to return. "Mālavanī will die without you." Dholā replies heartlessly, "Go, collect wood and, when she dies, cremate her."

Approaching Pungal, Dholā sees Māru as she comes with her friends to fetch water from a well outside the town. The parted lovers meet, and, are received with joy by Māru's parents.

My lover whom I awaited has come. The pillars dance, the house smiles, the bed-steads reel with joy.⁸

After a few days spent in pleasure of all kinds, Dholā, with his bride, sets off for his native land. People warn him against the jealousy of one Umar Sumarā whose offer for Māru's hand has been rejected. On the way, a serpent bites Māru and she dies. Dholā prepares to die with her on the same pyre, removes his ornaments, and gives a message to his camel to be delivered to his parents.

But God Śankar and his spouse hasten to the rescue of true love, and Māru is revived. Resuming their journey, Dholā and Māru meet Umarā's men. They induce Dholā to join them in a drinking bout, intending to kill him when drunk, and to capture Māru. She comes to know of the plan and warns him. Hotly pursued by Umarā's men, the galloping camel bears them in safety to Nalavaragadh. Every one is happy, and Māru and Mālavanī, both basking in their husband's love, live like two sisters.

8. ते साजन पवारीया, ज्यारी जोती वाढ,
थाभ कुदै घरि हसै, षेलण लागी वाढ

V

Another popular story, *Vidyāvilāsa*, is taken from Vinayachandra's *Mallināthamahākāvya* (c 1229) in Sanskrit. The first Gujarātī version of the story, written by Hirānand under the name *Vidyāvilāsano Pavādo*, is dated 1429. The most racy and popular version of it, undoubtedly, is that of Śāmal under the name *Vinechat-nī vārtā*.

In the town of Kāñchanapur lives Śrīpāl, the *nagar śeth*. He calls his four sons and asks them the best way to make money. Three of them indicate the normal methods of business, but the fourth, Śrīvats, an idiot, talks sedition. "I will rule as our king does," says he, and his father drives him out of the house.

Śrīvats goes to Ratnapur and attends school, where his dullness earns for him the name *mūrkhachat*, the fool. Among his fellow-pupils are Saubhāgyamañjarī, the king's daughter, and the son of the minister. The princess is in love with the minister's son, but he does not encourage her. The princess is insistent. The reluctant lover plays a trick upon her, he persuades the idiot to impersonate him as bridegroom, marry the princess, and run away with her during the night.

Before leaving the city, Śrīvats goes to offer his parting salutations to his teacher. Taking pity on the idiot, the teacher invokes Sarasvatī, the goddess of learning, and gives him some water endowed with the miraculous power of making a man learned. The idiot drinks the water, and, on the instant, he sheds his idiocy like a cast off skin. The princess, under the impression that she has married her lover, silently travels with him the whole night on a camel. When the dawn comes, she discovers to her horror that she has married the wrong man, and that too the idiot.

They come to Ujjayinī. Śrīvats, now poet and scholar, earns fame and the title of *vidyā-vilāsa*, one who delights in learning. Śrīvats's learning attracts the king's attention and he is appointed prime minister. Meanwhile, the unhappy princess, ignorant of the transformation her husband has undergone, lives in an upper storey of the house, bewailing the lot which has tied her to a fool. The

princess, having known her husband from his boyhood, declines to believe in his reputed learning

King Ratnaketu learns that his minister, though able to win over every one, has failed to win the heart of his own wife, and, curious to see the woman who could not be won by so charming and learned a husband, invites himself to dinner at their house. To frustrate the king's curiosity, the princess wears, in turn, three different dresses, and the king fails to ascertain which of the three ladies serving him is his minister's wife.

The king's curiosity remains unabated. He gives orders that his minister's wife should come and sing at a festival held outside the town in honour of the guardian deity. The princess makes what she thinks an impossible condition: "I will sing only if my husband plays an instrument in accompaniment!" says she. To her surprise, the condition is accepted. The minister plays upon the instrument to perfection, and she has to sing. The people are transported with joy at the skill of both, and the king has them carried in a procession through the city.

During the procession, the princess loses her ring. And for the first time after their marriage Saubhāgyamañjarī speaks to her husband, when she asks him to find it. Śrīvats goes back in search of the ring, but is inadvertently locked out of the city at night. Being in a hurry to return to his wife, he tries to enter the city through a gutter, and, in doing so, is bitten by a snake.

A courtesan, who sees what has befallen him, takes him to her house and cures him of the snake-bite. Śrīvats, in return, promises to grant any favour she might ask. The hetaira demands that he should live with her as her paramour, and, as a man of honour, he has to keep his promise. Unwilling to take risks, the woman ties round his foot a charm which immediately turns him into a peacock.

Peacock by day and paramour by night, poor Śrīvats leads a miserable existence. One day, Śrīvats, the peacock, flies to his own terrace, and hears Saubhāgyamañjarī bewailing the loss of a husband whom she has come to

love too late On the following day, he again visits his home On this occasion, his wife's friend happens to untie the charm, and he resumes his own form The husband recounts his tale of woe to the wife, but insists on being turned into a peacock, for a word plighted even to a courtesan must be kept And once more a bird, he flies back

But the princess reports all she has heard from her husband to the king, who retrieves him Śrīvats, now restored to his usual form, is honoured by the king Giving him his daughter in marriage, the king retires to a forest Śrīvats succeeds to the throne, marches on the city where his father lives, and, defeats its king The story ends with the reunion of the father and son

VI

There are two other love-stories of a still more fantastic kind, in which the romantic lovers pass through a succession of lives in order to attain a happy union One is *Hamsāvalī*, the available Gujarātī versions being of c 1355, 1457 and 1617, the last by a poet of the name of Śivadās This poet also wrote a tale called *Kāmāvatī*, which Virjī, the pupil of Premānand, re-wrote in c 1669 The heroines of these two stories are a class by themselves They begin as man-hating feminists, become love-lorn damsels, and end as loving wives There is yet another popular story called *Śilavatīno rāsa*, in which the loyal wife of a merchant sojourning abroad is believed to be carrying an illegitimate child, and is driven out of the family Tragic adventures befall her, but, in the end, she and her husband come together Matters are explained, the child is proved to be legitimate, and the wife is taken back, her honour fully established There are three versions of the story dated c 1547, c 1580 and c 1644 respectively Śāmal has adapted the story in *Bhadrābhāmīnī*

One other tale, *Sadayavatsa-Sāvalīngā*, has charmed Gujarāt for about five hundred years Sadayavats and Sāvalīngā, husband and wife, are banished from their native city, and are separated Ultimately they meet after undergoing fearful experiences, in all of which the fantas-

tic vies with the miraculous. The story is possibly taken from some unknown Prākṛit source. Its first available Gujarātī version is dated c. 1410, and many versions have followed. In the villages, its latest version still holds the field against modern stories.

VII

During the fifteenth century the literary activity of the Jain *sādhus* was as brisk as before, though its direction underwent a change. They were at an advantage compared to the Brāhmanas in those troublous times. They were not burdened by family or social ties. Except during the monsoon, they were always on the move, immune from the political misfortunes which had overtaken Gujarāt. Their literary tradition was intact, for their clientele was rich enough to preserve the integrity of the *upāśrayas* which sheltered them, their pupils and their libraries. As they travelled from the Punjab to the Deccan, their outlook grew wide and varied, while their solitary life left them sufficient leisure to acquire a thorough knowledge of Sanskrit and Apabhramśa literature.

The *sādhu* composed *charitas* of the self-same *tīrthan-karas*, *chakravartins* and saints as the literary *sādhus* before him had done. Just as the Brāhmanical author was obsessed by certain Purāṇic heroes, he was by Bharata, Rishabhadev, Nemināth and Sthūlibhadr. He wrote about them in tedious, monotonous rhyme. Sometimes he varied his themes by writing about Kumārapāl and Vastupāl. He also tried his hand at philosophic discussions, sermons, *sajjāyas* or eulogies of places of pilgrimage, and other religious subjects. But, unfortunately, religious propaganda was the sole ostensible excuse for his resorting to literature, and, consequently, his work suffered from a surfeit of religious and moral bias. He lacked the emotion of *bhakti* to elevate his utterance to even comparatively artistic poetry. With lapse of time, even his stories lost in interest, for, every incident had to be moulded to a narrow, rigid code of life.

VIII

Some of the Jain poets have hitherto suffered unmerited neglect. Their language for a time was treated as archaic, the religious and moral precepts with which they sowed their compositions repelled both scholar and reader, and the unbalanced praise of Jain scholars more often than not retarded a due recognition of their real worth.

The most notable author of the sixteenth century was Lāvanyasamay, an author of considerable literary attainments. His original name was Laghurāj. He was born in c. 1485 in a Śrīmālī Vanik family of Ahmedābād, and was initiated as a Jain *sādhū* at the age of eight. His autobiographical note in *Vimalaprabandh* runs

Through the favour of Sarasvatī, I became a poet in my sixteenth year and so I have composed excellent *rāsas*, with parts in prose and parts in poetry, using *chhanda*, *kavitā* and *chupāi*. I have also composed songs and poems in different tunes and also dialogues.

He composed over twenty-nine works. Four of these are *rāsas* of *tīrthankars* and saints. One is *Rāvanamandodarīsamvād*, c. 1506, a work based on the *Rāmāyan*, being a dialogue between Sita's abductor and his wife. The other is *Devarājavatsarājachupāi*, a story of the ordinary type. He also wrote the well-known *Vimalaprabandh*, c. 1512, and other religious and ethical poems.

Vimalaprabandh, or *Vimalarās* purports to be a biography of Vimalaśā, the minister of Bhīma I, the Chālukya king of Pātan, but it has scarcely any historical value. It is a story based purely on tradition. But, such as it is, it is better than the *rāsas* on historical persons of the centuries following, and represents an intermediate step between the historical *prabandh* of Merutunga and the popular legend of Rishabhādās. This *prabandh* was rendered into Sanskrit in c. 1522 by Saubhāgya.

The *prabandh* begins with a description of the Hemakūt mountain, of the foundation of Śrīmāl by the goddess Lakshmī (canto i), of the origin of the castes known as Śrīmāls, Ośvāls and Poravāds, of good omens, of the eighty castes of the Vaiśyas, of their social customs (canto ii), and of the iniquities prevalent in the Kaliyuga (canto iii). The

birth of Vimal is then described. The auspicious signs on his body foreshadowing greatness are mentioned. The ceremony of putting him to school and the way he completes his studies are next described.

Afraid of their enemies, his mother takes him to her father's village, where he acquires knowledge of arts and skill in arms through the favour of the goddess Ambājī. He is betrothed, and also discovers a buried treasure (canto iv). The auspicious signs on the body of a bride, the virtues of a good woman—rather a formidable number—the marriage of Vimal and Śrīdevī, and the festivities accompanying it are then described (canto v). The poet depicts their joy with an unusual restraint.

Lovely flowers spread their fragrance in beautiful gardens. There, they sport in dalliance, make coronets of *champā* flowers and crown each other, they gambol in fountains.

Vimal then goes to live in Pātan. King Bhīm is jealous of the rich and brave Vimal, and tries to have him killed by a tiger, but Vimal kills the tiger (canto vi). Tired of the persecutions of the king, Vimal leaves Pātan, captures Chandrāvati, near Mount Abu, and becomes its ruler. A traveller tells him of the twelve sultans in the city of Rome who have made it their business to destroy the Hindus. Vimal marches on them with his army, which is described in detail. A battle follows. Vimal is victorious, and returns to his city in triumph (canto vii). Then is described Vimal's war with the Brāhman king of Thathā in Sindh (canto viii) and, finally, the reader is treated to an account of the greatness of Jain religion and to an autobiographical note (canto ix).

Vimal was a heroic figure during the days preceding those of Siddharāja, but the story of the poet is entirely fictitious. For a study of contemporary manners the work is invaluable, but, as literature, of little worth.

IX

Half a century after Lāvanyasamay, we encounter Nayasundar. He lived between c. 1560 and 1620, resided for a long time in Gujarāt, and had a lady disciple, Hemaśrī, who composed *Kanakāvati* (c. 1585). Nayasundar, like

all Jain *sādhus*, travelled far and wide, and was a student of the Sanskrit, Prākṛit, Hindu and Urdu literatures. He left three social *rāsas*—*Rūpachandrakunvararās* (c 1581), *Surasundarīrās* (c 1590), and *Prabhāvatīrās*, besides one Purāṇic *rās*, *Naladamayantī* and two religious works.

Rūpachandrarās is one of the best written social *rāsas* of the century. The miraculous elements are to some extent repressed, or relegated to interlude tales. The diction is inaccurate, but ornate, and largely influenced by Sanskrit. It contains a much larger element of local and foreign words, is more rhetorical than Bhālan's, and, at places, develops a music and elegance of its own. The detailed descriptions of the conventional sort are often relieved by a freshness of outlook and humour.

After the inevitable description of lands, the prosperity of Mālwa is described, 'the happy land which has no thieves, where there is plenty of affection but no selfishness'. Then is given a detailed account of its capital, Ujjayinī, of its palaces, temples and marts 'with bejewelled merchants, fat and handsome, whose hands never leave off twisting their mustaches, their gaze fixed on customers'. In that city, resided a merchant Dhanadatt and his wife Dhanasundarī. The author points out at great length how a good woman is a blessing and a bad one a curse (canto 1).

The merchant and his wife had a son, Rūpadev. His infancy is described with a wealth of realistic detail. Rūpadev is put to school and the ceremony connected with going to school is described, as also the subjects he learns there. The thirty-two qualities of a perfect man are then enumerated. Rūpachand's marriage, and the ceremonies, dinner and festivities connected with it, are described with picturesque details (canto 11). The description holds good in every respect in many parts of Gujarāt and Mārwaḍ even to-day.

Gunasen, a tributary of the king of Kanauj, comes to live in Ujjayinī with his beautiful daughter Sohāg, who has decided not to marry. She attains her seventeenth year. 'The flood of youth increases, and Kāmadev, the god of love and youth, comes and lives in her body. She wants to see a drama, but her friend restrains her. "How can song and

dance be heard and seen by an unmarried girl?" The girl feels very miserable, for she has not yet found the man whom she could love. How is she to find him? The friend asks her to have confidence in her womanly instincts. A woman always wins.

In a moment, she weeps, and, in a moment again, she smiles and puts the minds of helpless men on trial. She can speak one thing and do another. A woman has no peer in the world.

The friend then tells her the story of the clever wife of King Vikram's son and, in telling it, relates a few miraculous events (canto iii). But Sohāg longs for a husband fit to be her mate. The friend first brings her king Vikram as a suitor, but he is unable to solve the riddles proposed by the girl, and is rejected. Sohāg then asks her to fetch Rūpachand, she has seen him buying betel leaf at the shop opposite her house. The friend goes to the young merchant but finds him unresponsive. But she persists.

She saw you once with her eyes, but she has been mad after you since. Her every moment is endless as a hundred years. Dame Lotus lives in the lake and the Sun in the sky, but she blooms only when he appears.⁹

And the poet declares

When you look at a man, and your body and mind rejoice and the eyes grow fond, do not desert him even if life departs.¹⁰

Rūpachand comes to Sohāg and is struck by her perfect beauty. Then follows a conventional description of her limbs with stereotyped similes. He falls in love with her at once. 'Again and again he looks at her, for his eyes are insatiate'. The lovers then spend the night together. Sohāg is happy.

He is the very lover who visited her in her dreams, she decides to borrow the thousand eyes of Indra to be able to look at him again and again.

- 9 एक बार तु नयणथी, दीठो दूर रह्याय ,
 तिहाथी लागो बेघडो, क्षण वर्षा सो थाय
 कमलिनी सरवरमा वसे, सूर्य वसे आकाश ,
 जब देखे पिउ आपणो, तब ते थाय विकास
 10 जे दीठे तम मन हुसे, नयणा धरे सनेह,
 ते माणस नबि मूकिये, प्राण त्यजे जो देह

A passage at arms in solving riddles follows Their sports are then described in the usual fulsome style (canto iv)

Spies inform the king that the girl who rejected him has accepted Rūpachand In the morning, the offended king sends for Dhanadatta and his sons The *mahājan* of the town, anticipating the king's wrath, accompanies the merchant The description is very picturesque, and gives an excellent idea of the *mahājans* in India who brought to bear the pressure of public opinion on irresponsible kings The king lets go all except Rūpachand He takes him to his palace and inquires how he solved the riddles of Sohāg. The young man feigns stupidity

I am a merchant and can only weigh spices A Vanik is stupid I only do business by telling nonsensical half-truths How can I who spend my life like this, know so much?¹¹

The king has him whipped like a thief through the streets of the city But Rūpachand declines to disclose his secret The unrelenting king gives orders for his execution Hearing this, the town is in a ferment Pressure of public opinion ultimately induces the king to rescind the order

The king's curiosity to discover the solution of the riddles propounded by Sohāg is still irrespressible He marries his daughter to Rūpachand in order to worm them out of him Sohāg writes a touching epistle, to which Rūpachand forwards a suitable reply Later, the princess, who by then has become a dutiful wife, asks Rūpachand how he solved the riddles of Sohāg The husband, bound by promise, tells the solution to his wife, the princess, who communicates them to her father The king, in a fit of joy, celebrates the marriage of Rūpachand and Sohāg The rest of the poem, unconnected with the main story, relates the adventures of Siddhasen Divākar and the conversion of Vikram to Jainism In course of time, Rūpachand becomes a *sādhu*

11 अमो हिंगलोल वाणिया, ओछा वणिगतणा प्राणिया
करीए विविधपरे व्यापार, जूठा साचा लबी अपार ,
इण परे घरनो निर्वाह करे, तो तेहने ए किम साभरे ?

Nayasundar's *Naladamayantīrās* is considered to be a rendering of a lost Sanskrit work called *Nalāyana*, composed by Māṇikyachandra in Divā in Gujarāt (c 1220) It is not in the author's best style, but, with this work composed a hundred years earlier, one can easily understand how Premānand came to write his masterpiece *Surasundarīrās* is a comparatively inferior work It is a rapid recital of the adventures which overtakes a princess abandoned in a forest by her husband

Nayasundar represents the authors in Old Gujarāt who adopted a style and manner exactly the reverse of Bhālan's Bhālan introduced the essential features of *rās* namely, popular sentiments and the forms in which they were expressed into what was primarily a rendering of a Sanskrit poem His object was to create a literature for a fairly intelligent class which had lost touch with Sanskrit Nayasundar enriched old *rāsa* stories with a wealth of literary and emotional reminiscences from Sanskrit works, and thereby produced a work which helped to raise the level of popular literature Both these movements starting from a different point of view met in the next century, when literature took a well-defined shape suited to the taste of the people as a whole Purāṇic *akhyāyikās* became popular tales and popular tales became transformed into poems of literary workmanship, at the same time, long and stereotyped descriptions remained the inartistic feature of both

X

Kusumaśrīrās by Gangāvijay is an interesting piece of social *rās* composed in c 1652 It is written in popular diction, approximating to Modern Gujarātī and unburdened by Sanskrit words and imagery The story, which is mainly in *duhā* with conversations in *deśī*, is well-told The author's technique is superior to that of many other well-known poets His sly humour is unusual with old Gujarātī authors One of the interlude tales, perhaps borrowed from an old source, is very interesting

Dhanasundar, a merchant living in the town of Ratnapur, goes abroad on a trading enterprise, leaving his wife

Dhanavatī in the care of his friend, Purohit, the priest of the king. Purohit comes to the merchant's and is well received by the lady. Attracted by her beauty and intelligence, he declares his love to Dhanavatī. She tries to reason with him, but the priest is not to be put off. The helpless lady makes an appointment with him for the first quarter of the night, and, not knowing how to get rid of this disloyal friend of her husband, goes to Durgapāl, the commandant of the fort, with the complaint. Durgapāl, equally struck with the charms of the unfortunate lady, promises to get rid of the priest if he himself is received as a favoured lover. She is in a quandary and gives him an appointment for the second quarter of the night.

In her terrible plight, she turns to the minister who is very properly shocked at the conduct of the two officials, and promises to get rid of them if she will accept him as a lover. She makes an appointment with him for the third quarter of the night, and approaches the king, as the final court of appeal, for protection against the evil intentions of his officers. He promises protection promptly, but on the very same condition the others had imposed. The lady, now desperate, invites him to come to her in the fourth quarter of the night.

Dhanavatī, though in distress, has the ingenuity to discover a means of escape out of this four-fold calamity. She has a long box with four compartments opening separately, brought down to her room. She also takes an old neighbour into her confidence and gets her to help carry out her plan of action. She requests her to spread a rumour in the town early next morning that news had been received of her husband's death, to collect the ladies of the town, and to come to her house.

The fateful night arrives. The priest arrives smartly dressed and self-satisfied. Dhanavatī, sweet, affectionate and ready to yield, invites him to dinner. At the end of the first quarter, the commandant knocks at the door. The priest is frightened and is induced by the lady to conceal himself in one of the compartments of the trunk.

The commandant enters. He, too, is well received and is entertained with talk and food. Time flies, the minister

knocks at the door, and Dhanavatī obligingly accommodates the commandant in another compartment of the trunk. The minister, like the two that preceded him, seeks safety in the third compartment of the trunk when the king knocks at the door. The lady's fascinating talk diverts the king, but just as he feels that he is gaining ground, the women of the town arrive beating their breasts with lamentations at Dhanasundar's death. Frightened, the king finds security in the fourth compartment of the trunk.

News of Dhanasundar's death spreads in the town. As Dhanavatī is now a childless widow, the authorities, according to law, want to take possession of the merchant's wealth. But the king, the minister, the general and the priest are not to be found. Ultimately, the queen orders the officers to take possession of the dead man's wealth. When the officers arrive at her house, Dhanavatī, all tears, confesses her ignorance of the whereabouts of her husband's wealth, but points to the trunk as, perhaps, the only receptacle which may contain it. The officers find the trunk very heavy, and, anticipating a rich addition to the royal coffers, hastily carry it to the queen.

The queen, struck with the heaviness of the trunk, is anxious to acquaint herself with the exact amount of wealth it contains. Dismissing the servants, she opens the first compartment. Out walks the priest, and the queen, perplexed, asks him how he came to be there. The priest, without offering any explanation, requests her to open the second. The process is continued, the second, the third, and the fourth compartments are opened, and the general, the minister and the king all stand before the queen, dumbfounded in self-confessed guilt.

IX

Another *sādhū* of considerable literary powers was Samayasundar who flourished between c 1580 and 1642. He was an indefatigable author, and composed about twenty long works, besides a large number of small poems. Many of his works are *rāsās* in the orthodox style and deal with *tīrthankars* and saints. He wrote *Naladamayantīrīs* (c 1617), and *Sītārāmchupāī* (c 1672). He used many

new *dhāls* or *deśī* melodies which, on his own testimony, became popular. The rhetorical flavour of his style and his humorous descriptions both closely approach Premānand's. His vivid picture of Krishna as an astrologer in *Sāmbapradyumna*, but for its older language, might be mistaken to be from the pen of the latter.

Yet another Jain author, Rishabhadās, must be mentioned, if not for his literary merits, at least for the untiring energy with which he spun his thirty-two works. His literary activities were spread over a period from c. 1617 to 1632. About sixteen of his works are *rāsās* on *tīrthan-kars* and saints. There are two on Kumārapāl, and one on Hīravijaya, an eminent Jain preceptor (c. 1517-1596) who induced emperor Akbar to issue *firmāns* prohibiting violence to animals on certain days in the year, and who, in consequence, assumed mythological proportions for his pupils. The poet spun out his *rāsās* in a dull and uniform style. He lacked the art of telling a story, like many other so called poets of the period, he had nothing new to say.

CHAPTER VI

AKHO AND THE GOSPEL OF OTHER- WORLDLINESS

The Moguls—Economic conditions of Gujarāt—Social life—
Venkatādhvarin on Gujarāt—Other-worldliness—Akhā Bhakta
(1615-1674) — Life — Works — Chhappās — Philosophical works
—His influence

IN the sixteenth and the seventeenth centuries, Gujarāt regained lost ground. As a province of the Mogul empire, it enjoyed a sort of settled existence and grew prosperous once again. The people succeeded in confining political influences to limited spheres, and stiffened social barriers so as to secure contentment and happiness within narrow grooves. Restricted life drove restive minds to harp upon the worthlessness of the world, while the prevailing contentment led genial spirits of the age to create a new literary tradition.

I

When Akbar, in 1573, formed the province of Gujarāt, he sliced off some districts, annexing them to Khāndesh and Mālhwā. Mārhwād, also, was finally separated from Gujarāt. The province was largely immune from wars and land-taxes, though the great nobles to whom the Emperor entrusted the government administered it by deputies, who never cared to carry out the constructive policy enjoined by the imperial edicts. Except for an invasion of South Gujarāt in 1600 by Malīk Ambar, the governor of the Nizām at Daulatābād, this state of affairs continued till 1644. In that year Aurangzīb, then the viceroy, gave the province a fore-taste of the intolerant policy which was to characterize his rule.

After Aurangzīb came to the throne, Śivājī first invaded Surat in 1664, and the imperial authority grew weak. Soon the Marāthā raids became a normal feature of life. Bāglān, the guardian fortress of the south, passed into their hands in 1672. They raided Broach in 1675, and again in 1685, Surat in 1699, and Broach, once again, in 1705. Two years

later Aurangzib died, and the Mogul empire began tottering to a fall

II

Under the Moguls, Gujarāt regained its prosperity. Cambay was the most flourishing port in India. "It was impossible," wrote Vaithema, a European traveller (1503-1508) "to describe its excellence." Surat was another port of international importance. Ghoghā as a port rose into prominence. Padre Ovington (1690) was in ecstasy at the matchless ingenuity and skill of Gujarātī bankers, weavers and ship-carpenters. "No other province in India," said Kāfikhān (1719) "can equal this rich province." European travellers and Indian historians vie with one another in extolling the magnificence of Ahmedābād with its three hundred and eighty suburbs, each of them, according to *Mirat-i-Ahmedī*, (1756), was of 'considerable size containing good buildings and markets filled with everything valuable and rare, so that each was almost a city'

III

During this period men were being driven into progressively narrowing communities. Social barriers were stiffened, the individual was sacrificed to the group. Untouchability came into existence. *Vimalaprabandh* records the existence of numerous sub-castes. Every social group which acquired a new local habitation and name by migration remained a self-contained unit and exercised rigorous control over its members. Marriage between members of different castes was prohibited. Disintegration of the joint family which had commenced prior to the date of the law-text, *Mitāksharā* (11th century), was sternly resisted.

Wise men, poets and moralists were moved to righteous indignation at young wives who desirous of having a good time with their husbands, drove them to disrupt the family, and, thereby, to destroy the protection which it afforded. No measures were deemed too strong to restrain these centrifugal tendencies of women. They lost the high status which they once enjoyed in the family, and were generally treated as slaves. Co-education in village schools came to

an end Marriage of infants became almost universal In *Mārudholāchupāī*, the hero, when three years old, was married to the heroine who was younger Bhīma (1485) bewails the degeneracy of the age in which girls were mothers at eight, and widows at sixteen Old men paid fancy price for infant wives Marriage of a grown-up girl with an infant husband was by no means rare An ill-assorted match was the rule In *Rūpachandakunvar rās*, Sohāg says

Better kill me, mother, with your own hands, place, if you like, a black, venomous cobra on my body, let me suffer the fearful misery of hell, but, do not give me in marriage to a stupid man

"In this world you never find one thing," runs a *garabī*, "you never find a well-matched pair" The position of a girl in the house of her husband was insufferable In a popular *garabī*, styled *Kera Kānto*, the Thorn, a young wife enumerates her father-in-law, mother-in-law etc, as thorns in her side

Men were, as a rule, much married Many a story leaves an unpleasant impression on the modern mind because of the light-heartedness with which the hero marries and supersedes wives Dholā, when in search of his first wife, is willing to see the second dead and burned, and only because she loved him too well Even a married woman was helpless When her husband decides to start for a foreign land, Surasundarī says, "If you leave me behind, people will spread scandals about me" Dhanavatī, under similar circumstances, is more emphatic

No one will respect me even in my father's house No one will ever pay me any attention The world will call me a helpless woman When her husband is with her, a woman can do what she likes She can talk with dignity, she can treat every man with contempt A woman, when her husband is away, is bereft of her senses, she is more dead than alive

In the Gujarāt of the Chālukyas, remarriage of widows was not considered disreputable But in the fifteenth century, Bhālan bewailed their lot 'Pious and charitable widows are treated like dirt If they keep themselves tidy, they are suspected of immorality.' Early in the eighteenth

century, Premānand regards remarriage of widows as an abomination

And society remained the same till the beginning of the twentieth century

IV

But these social activities were not the result of decay, but of a purposive corporate effort to preserve life from destruction. Within their castes the people were happy. Vallabh in his bombastic style thus describes Gujarāt in 1704

I have seen many lands, wandered over the earth. I have gone beyond Attock to see wars. Some things are found in some places, and other things in others. But every sort of happiness is not to be found in these lands, you see something wanting. But, in virtuous Gujarāt, you see men and women equipped with food, drink, and wealth. One thing more. It has something unique: the great, the powerful among the fair, Love. Yet another one like her, nay a greater lady, *Dayā* (compassion) lives here. In this Gujarāt live the merciful, the generous, the honourable, the wealthy, and the learned. Go to any place in India yourself: you will never find the qualities for which Gujarāt is famous¹

This description is too effusive, but the testimony of Venkatādhvarin of Telangana, the author of a *champi*, *Viśvagunādarśa* (c. 1640) requires to be noted

See this Gurjaradesa, Visvāvasu. Full of wealth and plenty, this land is another paradise. Its young men have their mouth full of fresh *pān*, fragrant with camphor and sweet betel-nut. They put on fancy, bright-coloured dress, attracting admiration, they adorn themselves with shin-

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- 1 सर्वस्व ए सुख का'वे, लह्यु कोक देशे काक ,
 तोय एक वानु नथी, भूमिमा भले भमो
 नर अने नारी जुओ, गुणियल गूजराते,
 खाना पाना धाना सर्व, वळी वधु एक छे
 स्त्रीलिंगमा जोराळी जे, महत्ववाळी छे माया,
 अधिकी तेथी छे आ तो, साक्षीओ अनेक छे ,
 तेवी के तेथी वधारे, दया दयिता छे वर,
 अन्य स्थळ अल्प दीसे, अत्र छकी छेक छे ,

दयावान दानवान, मान पान धानवान,
 विद्यावान हुता गया, एवो गूजरात आ ;
 भाळोने भरतखड, भमी भमी भले जाते,
 गूजरातकेरा गुण, वारू तो विख्यात आ !

ing ornaments of jewels Their bodies are fragrant with sandal-scented paste They seek pleasure in company with damsels beautiful as Rati

The beauty of the young damsels of this land is incomparable Their colour is molten gold, their lips are soft and red, their hands are delicate as sprouts, their speech is sweet as nectar, their face is lotus like, their eyes have the lustre of dark lotus in them What graces of these young Gujarātī damsels do not fascinate?—

The poet also refers to the wealth of Gujarāt

The people visit different countries, observe their novelties, and also acquire measureless wealth Then they return home, and meet their loyal wives, anxious to meet them, after a long period of separation In this way, these blessed ones, rich with every possession, enjoy untold happiness

The works of Premānand, Vallabh and Śāmal corroborate *Venkatādhari* Political power was ignored, if effectively segregated The land was rich, men contented, and life even The Purāṇic order of things was accepted as eternal Society, though subdivided, was self-contained, a sense of interdependence and service permeated all its strata Social structure had lost freedom, but gained power of resistance The culture had thus triumphed in the hour of its apparent defeat

- 2 स एष सर्वसपदामास्पदतया त्रिदशालयस्यादेश इव गुज्जर्देशश्चक्षुषो सुखा-
करोति । अत्र हि—

सकपूरस्वादुकमुकनववीटीरसलसन्
मुखा सर्वश्लाघापदविविधदिव्याबरधरा ।
लसद्द्रव्नाकल्पा घुमधुमितदेहाश्च घुसृणैर्
युवानो मोदन्ते युवतिभिरमो तुल्यरतिभिः ॥

अत्र वधूनामप्यन्यादृश सौंदर्यम्—

तप्तस्वर्णसवर्णमगकमिद ताम्रो मृदुश्चाधर
पाणीप्राप्तनवप्रवालसरणी वाणी सुधाधोरणी ।
वक्त्रवारिजमित्रमुत्पलदलश्रीसूचने लोचने
के वा गुर्जरसुभ्रुवामवयवा यूना न मोहावहा ॥

- 3 देशे देशे किमपि कुतुकादद्भुतं लोकमाना
सपाद्यैव द्रविणममित सद्य भूयोप्यवाप्य ।
सयुज्यन्ते सुचिरविरहोत्कठिताभि सतीभि
सौख्य धन्या किमपि दधते सर्वसपत्समृद्धा ॥

V

The Muslim rulers were accepted by the people as part of their normal existence. Many of them were Hindu converts, their proselytizing zeal had abated, and their self-interest linked them to a people who could replenish their treasury when required. *Bhakti* lost its vigour as a new impulse. By its very nature, its intensity could only be the privilege of the select, and the new Vaishnavism and its pleasure-loving high-priests had given it a new shape. The heroism of a Kāṇhaḍade or a Narasimh Mahetā had become a thing of the past.

Wealth and contentment without heroism stunted the ideals of life and produced resentment among the thoughtful. What was the use of this world, they asked, so stale, so unchanging, so sordid? Contemplation of the futility of life induced in them the morbid attitude of mind which characterized both the Jain *sādhū* and the ascetic Vedāntin. In a classical poem, Śaṅkarāchārya had expressed it centuries ago.

This life is fleeting, more transient than a drop of water on a lotus leaf. To be born, to die, and, again, to live in a mother's womb. In such a world, difficult to be crossed, nothing can save one except the grace of Murāri.

And, therefore, pleasures had to be eschewed and liberty destroyed. Men and women had to be made other-worldly, for, a death-like existence in this life was a necessary precursor of a happy existence after death. Woman was the gate of hell, the curse of creation, an encumbrance in this life, a hindrance to the next. To be a good man was to be a man dead to the joys of life. With this current also mixed the influence of Rāmānand, which through Kabir, Nānak and others maintained a tradition of devotion to God, the saint, and individual saintliness. This gospel of living death was preached by its literary exponents styled '*jñānī kavīs*', poets of philosophic thought, with irrepressible rancour, time and again. In the 16th century this tradition is represented by Dhanraj, 'a *jñānī kavi*', the fragments of whose *Vānī*, still survive.

VI

Akho or Akhā Bhagat (c 1615-1674) voiced this gospel. He was a goldsmith of Ahmedābād, originally from the neighbouring village of Jetalpur. For some time he worked as the head of the royal mint. He lost his wife early, and also a sister whom he dearly loved. Forgetting the traditional dishonesty of the goldsmith, he secretly added his own gold in preparing an ornament for a lady whom he cherished as a sister. The lady would not believe that a goldsmith could so flagrantly depart from the recognised maxims of his trade, and had the ornament tested to find out the truth. When she found that he had spoken the truth, she went to thank him for his kindness. Akho, however, was shocked at the lady's suspicions, and came to hate a world so full of distrust and suspicion. In the meantime he was put into prison on a charge of committing defalcation. The charge, however, was not proved, and he was set free. Weary of life, he threw his implements into a well and went abroad seeking peace of mind.

He sought refuge in prayer, performed many rituals, but found no peace. He went to Gokul in the hope of obtaining spiritual assistance from the *goswāmī*, the head of the Vaishnav sect.

There I accepted Gokulnāth as my teacher, he passed a string through my nose.⁴

He was feasted, he observed the festivities of the sect, but his spirit rose in revolt.

He (the *goswāmī*) had, no doubt, become a *guru*. But with a stone round his own neck, how can he keep himself afloat? He did not know Hari at all, he was merely posing as a teacher.⁵

At war with himself and the world, he went to Kāśī, where, hiding himself behind a wall, he heard the principles of Vedāntic philosophy expounded by a *sanyāsin*. The philosophy of Śankarāchārya gave him the solace he needed.

Akhā, now a complete believer in *varāgya*, non-attachment, gave up his wealth. On his return journey to

4 गुरु कर्पा में गोकुलनाथ, गुरुए मुजने घाली नाथ.

5 गुरु थई बैठो होशे करी, कठे पहान, शके क्याम तरी ?
पोते हरि नहीं जाणे लेश, काढी बैठो गुरुनो वेश

He was, however, very poorly equipped for literary work. The words which he used were very often inappropriate. His knowledge of prosody, grammar and syntax was meagre. His meaning was often shrouded in obscurity. He treated Sanskrit with lofty contempt.

What is the use of speaking in Sanskrit? Nothing is lost by speaking in Prakrit.⁷

His attitude towards other poets was equally contemptuous.

Poets only make an empty noise to make themselves heard, like the thunders of the sky when the constellation, Rohini, is in the ascendant. They only want to be worshipped, they join couplet to couplet, full of empty words. One is a poet, he composes much and yet does not think of Brahma, he only collects wealth by transacting business in love and hatred. What does he gain by it?⁸

He has no faith in those who teach religious precepts.

They only bring up water from a deep well with a torn leather drunk with wine.⁹

A shallow man of learning is a quarrelsome woman whose conceit is pampered by the birth of a son, a vicious bull who has fattened himself by grazing in the rains, a mad dog attacked with rabies, a monkey drunk with wine.¹⁰

Be your own teacher, worship the soul within.¹¹

He hates religious forms.

He has spent fifty-three years in making religious marks on his body, his rosaries have been worn out, his feet are tired with wandering from one sacred place to another, yet he has not reached Hari.

7. संस्कृत बोले ते शु थयु, काइ प्राकृतमाथी नाशी गयु

8. कविं शक्य जणावा काज, गाजे जेम रोहेणीनो गाज ,

...

....

पूजावा मनमा बहु कोड, शब्दतगा जोडे छे जोड ,

कवि थइने अधिकुं शु कव्यु, जोता नही ब्रह्म अणचव्यु ,
रागद्वेषनी पूजी करी, कवि व्यापार बँठो आदरी ,
तेमा अखा शु पामे लाभ

9. उडो कूवो ने फाटी बोख, शिखव्यु साभळयु सघणु फोक

10. ओछु पात्र न अदकु भण्यो, वढकणी बहुए दीकरो जण्यो.

मारकणो साढ चोमासु महाल्यो, करडकणा कुतराने हडकवा हाल्यो ;

सरकट ने वळी मदिरा पीए, अखा एथी सौ को बीहे

11. गुहथा तारो तुज .. वाळच अतरमा सेवा.

Hearing religious recitals again and again, I have grown deaf, but the knowledge of Brahma has not come to Akhā¹²

He holds up to ridicule men whose 'gods are as numerous as the stones they worship'¹³

They seek religious comfort after they have grown old and lost their vitality and wealth¹⁴

Religion is a fruitless, internecine quarrel, one says Rāma, the other Allāh¹

Do not pride yourself on your being a Vaishnava, do not go about enjoying feasts from door to door A king is he who performs kingly deeds, not he who merely calls himself a king¹⁶

He hates the social system, which degrades the untouchables and makes Brāhmans and Vaiśyas masters

To Nārāyan, none is high, and none low This world is made up of five elements but a fool takes pride in his caste In order to maintain their caste, some are called the head, some the waist, and some the feet But, really, the Brāhman, the Kshatriya, Vaiśya and Śūdra all make up the body of Hari Who is then a Śūdra?¹⁷

He is contemptuous towards the *purāṇiks*

- 12 तिलक करता त्रेपन वह्या, जपमाळाना नाका गया ,
तोर्थ फरीफरी थाक्या चर्ण, तोय न पहीता हरिने शर्ण ,
कथा सुणी सुणी फूट्या कान, अखा तोय नाव्यु ब्रह्मज्ञान
- 13 एक मूर्ख ने एवी टेव, पत्थर एटला पूजे देव
- 14 वृद्ध थयो वठचु मन-तन, उपाय टळचो ने खूटचु धन,
त्यारे धर्म साधवा जाय .
- 15 आपे आपसा उठी बला, एक कहे राम ने एक कहे अल्ला.
- 16 फूलीश मा नाम वैष्णव धरे, शु थयु घेरे घेर खातो फरे ;
कइ राजा नाम धर्ये नोय राज, नरपति थये नरपतिनु काज .
- 17 आभडछोट अन्त्यजनी जणी, ब्राह्मण वैष्णव कीधा धणी .

त्यम ऊच नीच न गणे नारायण,... ..

भूतपंचनो आ ससार, मुख ते वहे वर्ण अहकार ;
भात चालवा वर्णावर्ण, को मस्तक हस्त कटि चर्ण ;
ब्राह्मण क्षत्रिय वश्य ने शूद्र, हरिनो पिंड अखा कोण क्षूण.

Some wish to obtain the favour of those who died in the past How can they who read about corpses be happy?¹⁸

He sums up his gospel of other-worldliness succinctly

Opium and worldliness are alike to him who tastes them The more he takes them, the more tasteful they appear If he leaves them, he dies If he takes to them, he is dead¹⁹

VIII

The poet's longer works are philosophical rather than literary In spite of his arrogant refusal to call himself a poet and his obscure and ungrammatical style, Akhā's poetic flashes lighten his philosophical works, producing images of great vividness and beauty In *Anubhavabindu*, he thus illustrates philosophic doctrines

The waters of the sea spread in all directions They spread on the earth, the vegetation grows luxuriantly What of it is left rushes down the hills, and it bears the name of a river People hold it sacred and bathe in it It rolls on proudly Akhā! No one sees its beginning But Śrī Hari is as the sea, while life is but the river-flow

The hot season passes away, the monsoon spreads in lovely colours The lightning flashes, the gentle winds exhilarate the mind, the moon shines everywhere, all distress is quieted In the same way, the delusions of the senses disappear before the refulgence of the Supreme Consciousness²⁰

18 भूत कालमा जे थइ गया, तेनी मनमा इच्छे मया ,
अखा बेली केम टाळे व्यथा, जे नित्य वाचे मडदानी कथा.

19 एक अफीण बीजो ससारी रस, अधिक करे तेम आपे कस ,
जेम जेम अधिकु खातो जाय, अगे अकले हीणो थाय ;
जो मूके तो मुवे सरे, नहीं तो अखा ते खातो मरे

20 बारिधिकेरू बारि, चार दिश मध्ये चाले ;
पृथ्वी पर पथराय, वनराजी फूले फाले
ऊगरतू रहे अंबु सर्व ढली आवे ढाले ,
ते नदी नाम धराय ; न्हाय सहु, बहु महिमा लेहे
गर्वभरी गाजे अखा ! शरू न जुए सरिता सही
जेम सागर, तेम श्रीहरी , वच्चे जीवनदी वही.

जेम जाय ऋतु जलद, शरद ऋतु रूडी दीसे
दामिनीदमक पलाय ; वाय हलवे मन हीसे ,
चहुदिश चमके चंद ; धंद सहु मननू भागे ,
तेम भागे भवभ्रांति काति द्वितीयानी आगे.

In *Akhegītā*, he describes the manifestation of the Supreme Soul thus

The moon floods the world with light, her rays spread over the forests, glades and temple tops, even so the Supreme Soul pervades the sense world, and penetrates into the recesses of the heart²¹

Akhā did not possess Narasimh's subjectivity, nor his glorious wings of passion. But his *bhakti* was not devoid of personal touch, a world-hater though he was. He describes a *bhakta* in *Akhegītā*

He sings with the throb of tears in his voice, his limbs are a-quiver. He sheds tears of joy. His heart is full, he is inspired by love. While eating, drinking, and speaking, he sees Rāma. His mind is pervaded by Him. He is indifferent to his worldly duties. His heart is soft as butter, full of affection. His eyes are filled with ambrosia. He is but a field for the *bhakti* of Hari to grow. The mind of a young woman, engrossed in her lover, lives in him, she sees him and none else all day and night. And so does the mind of a slave of Hari live with Him²²

He had philosophic insight, his study of Vedānta was deep. But the poetic value of his works often lies in the Vedāntic conceptions and images in which, from the days of the *Upanishads*, the great Indian philosophers have embodied thought, his real contribution has been to use them with great force and appropriateness in the language.

One more instance may be given of a felicitous use of Vedāntic images. He describes supreme bliss in *Akhegītā* thus

What unknown bliss is mine to-day? I comprehend the Incomprehensible, I praise the Perfect Brahma, the Lord transcending the Lord

- 21 उदय उजालो दे जेम चंद्रमा जी,
किरण तेहना पसरे बनवीयी मद्रमा जी,
तेम सरखो आतम भासे कीट इन्द्रमा जी,
एहवो प्रगट्यो हृदयाकन्द्रमा जी
- 22 गद्गद् कठे गाते थके रोमांचित होये गात्र,
हर्ष आसु बहु हेत हृदय प्रेम केरु ते पात्र ,
खातो पीतो बोलतो देखतो ते सगळे राम,
वेद्यु मन रहे तेहुनु शिथिल ससारी काम
नवनीत सरख हृदे कोमल कह्यु न जाए हेत,
आख माहे अमृत भरियु हरि भक्ति केरु क्षेत्र ;
ज्यम जार बळुधी युवती तेनु मन रहे प्रीतमपास,
आर्हनिश रहे आलोचती भाइ एहवु मन हरिदास.

of Māyā He rules Viṣṇu, Śiva and Brahmā The Living Essence shines from nothingness He is indescribable, neither all pervading nor atomic when you know Him, all phenomena fade away He stands revealed in reality, karma touches him not, nor time, He pervades all ²³

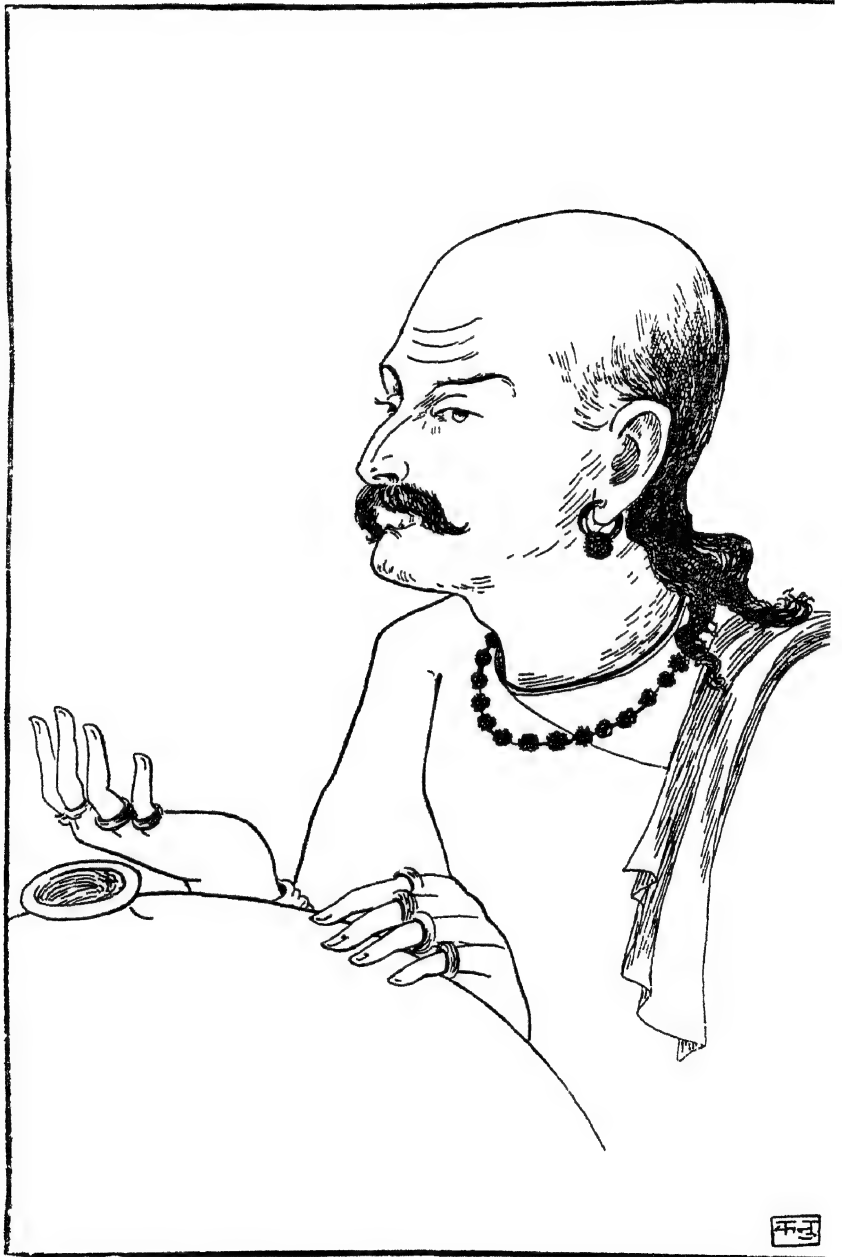
IX

Up to the beginning of the modern period, many poets echoed the note of Akhā,—a note which came out of a bitter heart, weary of the stagnant social and political conditions in Gujarāt Neither art nor insight characterised their outlook on life This class of cheerless literature consisted of monotonous *padas* on *śṛṅgāra*, on *jñāna*, describing the vanity of life, on *vairāgya*, praising other-worldliness and despising the joys of life

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- 23 अभिनवो आनन्द आज अगोचर गोचर हवु ए ,
परपचपार महाराज ते पूरण ब्रह्म स्तवु ए
हरिहर अज भुवनेश ते तणो ईश अजापति ए ;

स्वे चैतन्यधनराय शून्यमा सोहामणो ए ,
ते नावे बाणी माह्य ते नहि विराट ने वामणो ए

ए जाण्ये जाए जजाल, यथारथ ज्यम त्यम थयु ए ,
जिहा कर्म न लागे काल, सभर भराइ ते रह्यु ए
तिहा हवु मन लेलीन, जइ चैतन्य सभर भयु ए
नाहि को दाता दीन, तन्मय सहजे सज थयु ए
प्रगट्या कोटि कल्याण आपापर विणश्ये रह्यु ए ,
सदा सदोदित भाण उदे अस्त कारण गयु ए
कहे अखो आनन्द अनुभवने लहेवा तणो ए ,
एहवो पूरण परमानन्द नित्य सराहु अति घणो ए



PREMANAND

CHAPTER VII

PREMĀNAND

The literary consciousness of Gujarāt—Viśvanāth Jānī—Premānand—His life—His works—His literary characteristics—His realistic art—His personal note—His philosophy of life—The *ākhyān* in his hands—*Okhāharan* (1667)—*Abhimanyu-ākhyān* (1671) — *Hundī* (1674) — *Śrāddh* (1681) — *Māmerun* (1683) — *Nalākhyān* (1685)—*Ranayaṇa* (1685)—*Ashtāvakra-ākhyān* (1719) — *Sudamācharitr* (1682)—*Dasamaskandh*—The plays attributed to him—Vallabh (1704)—*Mitradharmākhyān*—Ratnesvar—Sāmal bhatt (c 1700)—His position in literature—His style and technique—His *chhappās*

BY the beginning of the seventeenth century, Gujarāt as a province of the Mogul empire, had settled down to a sort of peaceful existence. A new literary tradition arose; and the form, the expression, and the technique for which the *rāsā* or *ākhyān* stood, together with its frame-work of Purāṇic episodes or popular fiction, were made a medium for a realistic treatment of life.

I

The exponents of this tradition found in the life of Narasimh Mahetā a new and fertile source of inspiration. Popular imagination had been busy surrounding him with miraculous achievements. About 1584 Viśhnudās of Khambhāt and another poet composed *Mamerun*. About 1645 an unknown poet rearranged *Hāramālā*, celebrating the incident in which Śrī Krishna gave the saint a garland in the court of Rā Māṇḍalik. Viśvanāth Jānī (1625-1675) was a well-known poet who composed *Mośālācharitr* (1652) about another incident. Soon after, Krishnadās composed a *Hundī* (1657). In 1678 Premānand edited *Hāramālā*, and set about composing brilliant works on well-known incidents in Narasimh's life.¹

II

Premānand, son of Krishna of Baroda, was the greatest literary figure of the age, a Sathodra Brāhman by caste.

1 *Ante* p 139, Munshi Narasayya *Bhakta Harino* Introduction (Guj.) pp 36, 47, 51

Few authentic details of his life have come down to us. Most of the details are provided by works attributed to him, but in reality forming part of the Baroda forgeries.² According to these works the poet was left an orphan in his infancy, and taken for an idiot. In the company of a *sanyāsin* Rāmācharan, he toured North India, studying Sanskrit and Hindī, then the language of culture. At first, Premānand wrote in Hindī, but his Guru disapproved of his efforts. "Why neglect your door-steps and go in search of a distant mountain?" Accepting the advice, he restricted his literary activities to his mother tongue.

He began his career as a *gāgarīā bhat* in Surat, then the richest port of the Mughal empire. He at once gained popularity, and was in demand at Baroda, Nandurdbar, and Khāndesh. The young poet was diffident. He says, "I beseech the poets not to find fault with my works." But, before long, he acquired courage and confidence.

He made good money, and spent it generously in the orthodox style, feasting the Brahmans. His son says, "He caused a river of ghee to flow, and God himself built the banks of sugar."

Purāṇikas were very costly, I felt anxious about it. So I decided to show to the people the difficult path to heaven, and made this aerial car of Prakrit.

His was a prosperous and uneventful life solely dedicated to literature. He is said to have died at the ripe old age of ninety-eight, though there is no trace of him after 1700. More likely he died at the age of about sixty. He left fifty-two disciples, twelve of whom were women, devoted to the cause of literature. On his death-bed he is said to have given directions that, out of his disciples, his son, Vallabh should write in the style of Hindī poets, Ratneśvai in the style of Marāṭhī poets, Virjī in that of Persian poets, and Sundar in the style of the *Purāṇīs*.

III

The works of Premānand were very popular, and kept alive the traditions and maintained the atmosphere of the *Purāṇas* in the province. Fifty years ago, there was

2 *Vide* Note 'Baroda forgeries'

scarcely a middle-aged lady of the higher class in Gujarāt who did not know at least one of them by heart

Premānand composed with incredible facility. As many as fifty-seven works are attributed to him, several of them being of considerable length though twenty-six of them appear to be smaller. The works can be divided, according to their sources, into the following groups

(1) *Ākhyāns* from the *Mahābhārata* *Chandrahāsākhyān* (1671), *R̥shyaśringākhyān* (1673), *Draupadīsvayamvar* (1680)*, *Mōndhātākhyān* (1681)*, *Bhagavadgītā* (1682)*, *Nalākhyān* (1685), *Draupadīharan* (1689), *Subhadrāharan* (1702)* and *Ashtāvakraākhyān* (1710)*

(2) *Ākhyāns* from the *Bhāgavata Purāna* *Lakshmanāharan* (1664)*, *Okhāharan* (1667), *Sudāmācharitr* (1682), *Vāmanacharitr* (c 1729), *Dāna-līlā**, *Saptama-skandh**, *Rukmīnīharan* and *Dhruvākhyān*

(3) *Ākhyāns* from the *Mārkaṇḍeya Purāna* *Madālāsākhyān* (1672), *Harīschandrākhyān* (1692), and *Devīcharitr* (1695)*

(4) *Ākhyāns* from the *Rāmāyana* e.g. *Ranayaajña* (1685)

(5) Complete versions of the *Mahābhārata**, the *Bhāgavata**, the *Mārkaṇḍeya Purāna** and the *Rāmāyana*

(6) *Ākhyāns* on the life of Narasimh Mahetā *Vivāha*, *Hundī* (c 1674), *Hāramālā* (c 1678), *Śrāddh* (1681) and *Māmerun* (1683)

(7) Miscellaneous works, like *Svarganīśaranī*, *Viveka-vaṇjāro* and *Bhramar-pachīśī*

Many parts of these works have been bodily taken from the works of Bhālan, Viśhnudās, Nākar, and other less known of his predecessors. A prince of plagiarists, Premānand allowed no law, either of morals or art, to prevent him from appropriating another man's work. By the very conditions of his profession, he was required to use his poetic skill upon the *ākhyāns* well-known to his audience. And his works, in consequence, exhibit widely differing standards of skill and language. *Nalākhyān*, though largely based on a predecessor's work, is an independent work of art, every line of which testifies to the touch of a skilled artist.

IV

Premānand was very proud of the Gujarātī language, and had pledged himself to make it as rich and beautiful as Sanskrit. He is said to have given up wearing a turban till he redeemed the pledge. In *Roshadarśikā-satyabhāmā-khyān*, a drama attributed to him, he says

May the Gujarātī language be rich with implied meanings, lovely in its parts. May her feet be full of grace and ornament. May she excel all her comrades. May she reach the pedestal occupied by the language of gods (Sanskrit). May God fulfil my hope of seeing her the best among all her friends!'

His command over the resources of the language was unequalled, and so was his knowledge of contemporary life. He was a profound observer, no detail escaped him. He depicted passion, situation and character in a vivid style. He was a master of the art of gaining broad effects, and could play upon an emotion to the point of saturation. He excelled in making an old plot, however jejune, throb with new life. Among the literary artists of the period, he alone was truly a creative artist, and could give a glimpse of actual life.

A clever reader of the popular mind, he was always ready to cater to the prevailing taste. This was his strength and his weakness. In his hands, the dignity of the Purāṇic characters suffered lamentably. The mighty and astute Śrī Krishna was painted in the *Abhimanu-ākhyān* as a base trickster. The incident of king Yuvanāśva bearing a child was described in the *Māndhātākhyān* with a wealth of intimate details revealing lack of good taste and artistic perception. His audience must have enjoyed a recital of those passages, but, to-day, they scarcely help to justify his literary reputation.

It is difficult to find even an isolated note of personal feeling in his works. He wore a literary mask, and identified himself with every situation.

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૩. સાગોપાળ સુરગ વ્યંગ અતિશે, ધારો ગિરા ગુર્જરી,
પાદે પાદ રસાલ ભૂષણવતી, થાઓ સહી ઉપરી ।
જે ગીર્વાણ ગિરા ગણાય ગણતા, તે સ્થાન એ લ્યો વરી,
થાયે શ્રેષ્ઠ સહુ સહીજનથકી, એ આશ પૂરો હરિ ॥

The works dealing with *bhakti* show Premānand only as an artist, he can describe the storm of love without betraying subjective intensity. His works, no doubt, display greater variety of treatment and a more comprehensive effort to enrich emotions than the work of Narasimh, but the great impulse of pure *bhakti* does not inspire them, nor does a high conception of beauty⁴.

His horizon was limited by the narrow world in which the small castes of Gujarāt had their being. Satisfied with himself and his times, he considered everything to be for the best in this best of all possible worlds wherein men were ruled by the Purāṇic order of things. In S. Y. 1729 (A. D. 1673) famine swept over Gujarāt, and the poet composed *Rishyaśringākhyān* with this note:

It was terrible calamity, the only good fortune was that it was not the end of the world, even suckling babies tremble when they hear of the famine of twenty-nine. In that year, twenty-nine, I composed this work, I could not repress my nature. I am only happy when I compose a poem.

His sanity of outlook was in remarkable contrast to the other-worldly note of contemporary literature.

Premānand took the old *rāsā* form of the *ākhyān* as he found it—a long, poetic composition divided into *kāvāṇs* in *deśi* and rounded by two lines of *valan*. But he used it with freedom and vigour. In his best works, the story was a rapid gripping narrative, but he broke it up at frequent intervals to make room for long descriptions instinct with real life, or *padas* or *garabīs* infused with feeling, homely but rich. He used his art so skilfully that the *ākhyān* became, like the modern novel, an elastic medium for all literary purposes.

V

In *Okhāharan*, the poet describes the feelings of a Gujarātī girl on seeing her husband's father. Okhā, daughter of the demon Bānāsūr, is locked up in a tower with a companion, Chitrālekḥā. She meets Aniruddh in a dream and falls in love with him. In the morning, she requests Chitrālekḥā to draw portraits of well-known men that she might identify her lover. Chitrālekḥā tries her

hand at drawing various celebrities, but Okhā is unmoved Chitrলেখা ultimately draws Krishna

When she saw Śrī Krishna, Okhā stood up out of respect, covering her face with the fold of her sārī. She recognised her grand-father-in-law. She said, "My husband is surely descended from this man."

Then Chitrলেখা drew Pradyumn, and Okhā covered her face again. She said, "His limbs are those of my lord, not his age."

Chitrলেখা then drew Aniruddh on paper. He had a coronet on his brow, his face was like the moon, his eyes, like lotuses. Agitated, Okhā rushed to embrace the paper. "Come, my Lord, come," she cried, "you have accepted me, why do you forsake me now? A woman's heart is soft, how can I bear it? Speak, I pray, speak to me. Why don't you?"

Chitrলেখা said, "This is not your husband. You will tear the paper, if you hold it like this."

The marriage of Okhā with Aniruddh, described in detail, is solemnised in typical Gujarātī style. Bānāsūr's wife welcomes the bridegroom and his party, the dinner is given with éclat, drums resound with joy, women sing festive songs, and the marriage knot is tied.

Abhimanyu-ākhyān describes the exploits of Abhimanyu, the son of Arjun by Krishna's sister, Subhadrā. Inspired by revenge, Ahilochan, son of the demon Mayadānav, comes to Dvārakā with a magic trunk, in which he proposes to smother his father's murderer, Krishna. Krishna assumes the form of Śukrāchārya, the high-priest of the princely demons. But the description given by the poet is not of the venerable Śukrāchārya of the Purānas.

He appeared an old man. He had a stick in his hand and yet he stumbled at every step. A torn piece of cloth was folded round his

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૫. દીઠા શ્રીકૃષ્ણ ને ઓલા ડઠી, કીધી વડસસરાની લાજ ,
 અરે સહિયર ! એ ભિયાના રે કુલમા, છે મારો ભરથાર.
 તવ પ્રદુમ્નને લલ્લી દેલાડયો, લાજ કીધી બીજી બાર ,
 કન્યા કહે અવયવ પ્રભુના, આ પુરુષ કોઈ વદ્ધ
 ચિત્રલેખાએ લલ્લી દેલાડયો, કાગલમા અનિરુદ્ધ,
 મુગટ ભ્રમરપર વદન સુધાકર, નેત્ર બે અબૂજ ,
 ઘેલી ઓલા ધાડને મેટી, કાગલને ભરી મૂજ
 ધન્ય ધન્ય નાથજી ! હાય પ્રહીને ન મૂકીએ તે બીડી સારૂ ;
 હૃદય અબઢાનૂ હોય કાચુ, કુળ ગજૂ છે મારૂ ?
 ના, ના, બોલો મારા સમ છે, લાજો છો શા માટે ?
 ચિત્રલેખા કહે ન હોય સ્વામી, વઢળ્યામા કાગલ ફાટે.

head Shaking with palsy, with mouth and nose dribbling, he looked from side to side with watery eyes His body was shrunken, weak as a twig, as he coughed, he was out of breath He, the Eternal,— coughed loudly like a consumptive man His feet shook under him, sometimes, he fell to the ground Hunch-backed he was, and doubled at the waist His feet were rheumatic, his hair white, his knees bent He walked with a limp When he spoke, his tongue came in the way He had spasms Dressed in a forester's garb, he had thrown a blanket over his shoulders "

This description of a poor, old, diseased village priest is graphic, though a little too colourful

On the pretext of measuring the trunk, Krishna induces Ahilochan to get into it, and shuts down the lid The demon is suffocated to death Krishna entrusts the box to his sister, Subhadra The wives of Krishna, burning with curiosity, prevail upon Subhadra to open the box Feminine curiosity is, then, picturesquely described by the poet The box is opened, the spirit of Ahilochan enters Subhadra, and Abhimanyu is born

VI

In the contemporary setting of *Narasimh Mahetānī Hundī* the poet is not put to the strain of having to devise situations uncongenial to his art as in the Purānic *ākhyāns*, and is more successful The Maheta drew a *hundī* on Krishna at Dvārakā in favour of some pilgrims

The Beloved met the pilgrims on the banks of the Gomati He had a fitting appearance He walked as men do in the market His turban was of twisted folds Where did he learn to fold it so? With a pen

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- ६ वृद्ध वेश कर ग्रही लाकडी, वागे ठेस पड़ आखडी.
जलजला नेत्र जुवे अरुपर, माथे बांध्यु फाटु चौथरू ,
थरथर देहडी धुजे जदुराय, कायामा प्रगटयो कप वाय
मुख नासिकाये लाळो चूवे, कर कपाळे दई आडु जूवे ;
पेटे वळी छे करचली, दोनबधु दुबळा जाणे पेपली
उधरसनो ठोसो ने चढे श्वास, खई रोगिया थया अविनाश ;
खो खो खो खुबारो करे, भोम पडे ने पग लडयडे
नीसरी खुध कटी बेवड वळी, पगे वायु ने माथे पळी ,
खोडागतो चाले कानुवो, वाकु घुंटाण पगे जानुवो
वळगे जीभ बोलतां आवे शूळ, ओढयो कामळो पहेंयु वनकूळ ;
एवे हपे परमेश्वर पळ्या, अहिलोचनने सामा मळ्या.

behind his ear, he looked a *vanik* Like a bania, the Lord spoke hurriedly and with a lisp A necklace of gold was round his neck, a broad belt of gold round his waist His palm had the lines of wealth He had rings on his fingers, a scarf over his shoulders The Lord was large of build "

In *Śrāddh*, the Mahetā invites his caste-men to dinner on the anniversary of his father's death His wife sends him to the market to buy ghee, but the saint, oblivious of his mission, joins some one in singing the praises of Śrī Krishna The guests arrive, but dinner is not ready Mānekbāi, Narasimh's wife, is unhappy, and the guests disappointed and sarcastic Śrī Krishna, however, assumes the Mahetā's form, brings ghee, and the feast is held

In *Māmerun*, wherein the poet narrates how Krishna helped the Mahetā to celebrate the *mośālā* of Kunvarbāi, the journey of the saint to the village of her husband is described in detail Too poor to hire a cart, the saint improvises a vehicle

The body of the cart was old, the yoke was bent, the poles broken. The wooden nails belonged to another, the bullocks were borrowed A sack containing musical instruments, a bag of the sacred white clay, and another of *tulsī* wood were tied behind the cart The scraggy bullocks would not move, and the Vaishnavas had to push them forward When going uphill they did it, shouting, "Victory, Victory," all the time Sometimes one of the bullocks, too tired to move, would lie down on the road, and the other alone would drag the vehicle They would then force the first one to rise by pulling its tail A thousand such incidents would happen Every joint of the cart was loose, the axle creaked, the wheels grated They got in and out of the vehicle with the names of Rāma and Krishna on their lips In this manner,

૭. વહાલો ગોમતીજીના ઘાટમા રે, મઝચો તીરથવાસીને વાટમા રે ;
વેશ પુરો આપ્યો મારે વહાલે રે, નાથ ચડટાનીં ચાલે ચાલે રે.
છે અવઢા આટાની પાઘડી રે, વાલાજીને કેમ બાધતા આવડી રે ?
દીસે વાળીઓ ખીન વાન રે, એક લેખણ ધોસી છે કાન રે

ત્રિકમજી વણિકની તોલે રે, નાથ ઉતાવળુ ને બોબડું બોલે રે ,
સોનાની સાકઢી ને કંઠ દોરો રે, કેડે પાટીવાલો કદોરો રે
મઝકે ધનરેખા હથ લિમાં રે, આગઢીએ વીંટી ને વેઢીઆ રે ;
એક ઓઢી પછેડી લાધે રે, નાથ દુદાલો ને મોટી ફાદે રે.

Mahetājī came to Unā at midday and the village turned out to see him⁸

VII

Nalākhyān is perhaps the most popular of the poet's *ākhyāns*. This poem is characterized by an ornate style, elaborate descriptions, and intense emotions. It is evidently an attempt to produce a masterpiece on the conventional model. The description of Damayantī is in the approved hyperbolic style of the period.

The serpent saw the lovely braid of Damayantī, and, humbled and ashamed, crawled into the nether regions. The moon saw the sweet face of Bhīmaka's daughter, waned, and hid behind a cloud. At creation, Brahmā collected light in a pot, and made the limbs of Damayantī out of it. Part of it lay unused, parts lay scattered about, Brahmā put them together and created the moon⁹.

- ८ जुनी बेल ने घूसरि बाकी, सागी सोटा भागीजी ,
कोना तळाय्या ने कोनी पिजणियो, बळद आण्य्या बे मागीजी.
महेतोजी मामेरे चाल्या, समर्या श्री जगदीशजी ,
त्रण सखियो सघाते चाली, वेरागी दश बीशजी
सपुट बाबांनी डाबलीनो, तेमा बाळमुकुदजी ,
कठ हार करीने राख्या, दामोदार नंदनदजी
बलनी पूठ कोयळो बाघ्यो, माही भर्या वाजित्रजी
गाठडी एक गोपीचदननी, तुळशी काष्ट पवित्रजी
मोसाळानी सामग्रीमा, तिलक ने तुळसीमाळजी ,
नरसैयाने निर्भय छे जे, भोगवशे गोपाळजी.
बळ हीणबळशे शु हींडे, ठेले वैष्णव साथ जी ,
सोर पाडे ने ढाळ चढावे, जे जे वैकुंठ नाथजी
एक बळद गळियो थई बसे, आखलो ताणी जायजी ;
पडचाने पुंछ ग्रही उठाडे, कौतुक कोटी थायजी
साले साल जूजवा दीसे, रथतणा बहु चक्रजी ,
सागीनो बहु शब्द ज उठे, चूचवे छे बहु चक्रजी
चड बेसे ने वळि उत्तरे, ले रामकृष्णनु नामजी ,
मध्यान्ह महेताजी आव्या, जोवा मळघु उ गामजी
९ दमयतीनो चोटलो, देखी अति सोहाग ,

अभिमान मूकी लज्जा आणी, पाताळ पेठो नाग.
भीमक सुतानु वदन सुधाकर, देखीने शोभाय ,
चंद्रमा तो क्षीण पामी, आभमा सताय
सृष्टि करता ब्रह्माजीए, भयु तेजनु पात्र ,
ते तेजनु प्रजापतिये घड्यु, दमयतीनु गात्र
तेमाथी काई शैव बाघ्यु, धडता खेरो पडियो ,
ब्रह्माए एकठु करीने, तेनो चंद्रमा घडियो

King Nal wants to marry her, but not even the sage Nārād will carry his message to her, lest his ascetic mind should lose self-control in her presence

When on a visit to a forest the king catches a beautiful swan with a golden body The bird thus expresses its feelings towards the captor

Sinful man! For what sins of mine, do you visit me with this punishment? Alas, man is cruel He will kill me forthwith, tear off my wings, roast me on fire Who will save me from him? In order that he may eat, I must die, a jewel like me must be destroyed My mate, disconsolate, must also die On whom will she now rely?¹⁰

The king, moved by compassion, lets the bird go, and, in return, it flies to Damayantī and inspires her with a tender feeling for Nal When Bhīmak holds a *svayam-var* for his daughter, Nal and other kings, and even gods attend Inspired by jealousy, the gods, including Indr, Varun and Dharm, transform one another's face into that of a dog, a cat, a monkey or a bear This touch of vulgarity scarcely satisfies the requirements of art, but, for the poet, Purānic personages were only pegs to hang contemporary pictures on Damayantī selects Nal, is married to him and returns with him to his capital

On one occasion, Nal plays dice with his brother, and loses the stake, and, in consequence, he has to give up his throne and go to a forest for three years Damayantī bids a touching farewell to her children when she loyally follows Nal to the forest Misfortunes befall the pair as they wander through the forests Kālī, the spirit of the Iron Age, instigates Nal to desert Damayantī while she is lying asleep in the forest She wanders in the forest, alone and terrified, calling upon Nal in piteous wails She is partly swallowed by a python, and narrowly escapes death

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- ૧૦ ઓ કાઠા માયાના ઘળી, પાપી માણસા રે, જેને નિર્દયતા હોયે ઘળી, પા ॥
 એ તો જીવને મારે તતલેવ, પા. હવે હુ મુઓ અવશ્યમેવ, પા ॥
 દુપી નાલશે માહારી પચાય, પા મુને શેકશે અગ્નિમાય, પા ॥
 કોણ મૂકાવે કરી પક્ષ, પા માહારે મરવું ને એને મક્ષ, પા ॥
 આ મજ સરખું, રતન પા તે એઠે થાશે નોધન, પા. ॥
 ઢલવઢી મરશે માહારી નાર, પા તે જીવશે કેને આધાર, પા ॥

These parts of the poem, already worked upon by numerous poets, bear testimony to the poet's mastery over tragic situations. But in the case of Old Gujarātī works, estimates can be only comparative, though a masterpiece among the *ākhyāns* of the period, *Nalākhyān* is but a crude vulgarisation of the noble original in the *Mahābhārata*.

Ranayañña describes the battle between Rām and Rāvan, and incidentally shows the poet's skill in dealing with *vīr ras*, the heroic sentiment. But it is extravagant and tawdry, and lacks the epic thrill of *Kāhnadadepra bandh*.

A crowd of demons rushed determined to fight. Noses and ears and feet were scattered on the ground. Rivers of blood met. Some cried out, others shouted encouragement. Some roared, others were beaten with fists, some were stifled, some were masticated to death. Here and there and everywhere, royal umbrellas were lying about and armour plates and chains lay broken.¹¹

Queen Mandodarī, while remonstrating with Rāvan, describes the ominous signs which prophesy disaster.

Oh, king, the day is dusty and overclouded. The sun is dim, my lord, the quarters are foggy. Evil omens meet us everywhere. Yester-night, I had a dream. King, how can I tell you how horrible it was? The sea was dried up, the river ran with blood, Lankā was in flames. Your queens were in tears, and so were your daughters and daughters-in-law. And I saw them tonsured, their hands without bracelets.¹²

११ राक्षस जुथ आवे त्याहा अति अडिया ,

नासाकर्ण ने चर्ण बहू धर्ण ठळिया,

महा रुधिरनी सरिता नीर मळिया

हकारे बकारे कोई त्या खोखारे,

पोकारे होकारे मारे खड्ग धारे ,

पगे झीक पडे ढीक हैये हीक आवे,

आणे अंत बळवत दत चावे

यत्र तत्र सर्वत्र बहु छत्र पडिया,

पाखर बख्तर कवचनी त्रुटी कडिया

१२ आजनो दाहाडो लागे धुंधळो, दीसे झाखो दिनकर देव, हो राणाजी ,

त्रिभुवननाथ ना दुभीए, जेनी ब्रह्मा शकर करे सेव, हो राणाजी आ.

दिशा चारे दीसे धुंधळी, काई शुकन माठेरा थाय, हो राणाजी ;

काई फालु बोले रे बिहामणी, एए वायस श्वान ने गाय, हो राणाजी. आ.

गई राते स्वप्न में पामियु, दीठु दाहण कह्युं क्यम जाय, हो राणाजी ;

समुद्र सुका रुधिर सरिताभरी, लकामा लागी छ लाय, हो राणाजी आ

But the king is adamant, he is determined to fight Rām. Even Rāvan's fierce brother, Kumbhakarn, makes a piteous but vain appeal to his brother to desist from fighting.

The poet, however, must make even the demon a little attractive. Rāvan replies

Hear my sorry tale When I see Jānakī, I see in her as it were our mother. My love for her will only be destroyed with my corpse.

At the end, Rāvan develops a sanctimonious disposition, confessing that he is only seeking liberation through death at the hands of Rām.

VIII

Ashtāvakraṛkhyān,¹³ written in somewhat polished style, contains excellent verses. The sage, stricken by love, wanders in a forest in the company of his wife.

The breeze blew softly. A pair of peacocks uttered notes of delight. Inspired by love, they moved about like a *sāras* pair. They did not part from each other, in talk, in food, or in enjoyment. Their love grew, as the lady sang to her lord. On the way, the wind blew, sweet and mild, cool and fragrant, the youthful bride looked at the full-blown lotus with an anxious heart.¹⁴

Sudāmācharitr exhibits great realism. Sent by his wife to seek help from Kṛṣṇa, his friend when in school, Sudāmā, the poor Brāhman, arrives at the palace. Kṛṣṇa rushes forward to welcome Sudāmā, and his wives bring gifts as a ceremonial welcome. The old friends meet, and

लाख लाख राणी तमारडी, बीजो बहुबेटीनो साथ, हो राणाजी ,
केश विना दीठी मस्तक बोडला, चुडला विना दीठा हाथ, हो राणाजी आ

13 Vide Munshi, *Thodānk Rasadarsano*, p 236 et seq

१४ त्या वायु मद्गति करे अति, द्वंद्व बोले मोरना,
सारस समा बे सचरे छे, कामदेवना जोरमा
बिखुटा पडे नहि वातमा ते, हारमा बिहारमा,
बिखुटा पडे नहि वातमा ते, सारमा असारमा
बिखुटा पडे नहि वातमा ते, पारमा अपारमा,
बिखुटा पडे नहि वातमा ते, भारमा नभारमा
रे बिखुटांज पाडे काळ भूलवे, धार निराधारमा,
वितनु वाढ्यो स्वर अलापे, भामिनी भरथारमा.
शो मधुर मद सुगंधि शीतळ, वायु बाहे वाटमा,
खीलया कमळ जोई रहीं जुवती, खरेखरा उचाटमा.

touchingly exchange reminiscences of their boyhood Sudāmā presents Krishna with a little rice, and the present is returned by Śrī Krishna a millionfold without his knowing it When the poor Brāhman returns to his cottage, he finds in place of it a royal palace with elephants waiting at the door Struck dumb with amazement, he does not know what to do Beauteous damsels accompany his wife, now transformed into a young, fascinating woman, as she comes out to welcome him Then follows a humorous situation

When, worshipping him, she touched his hand, the sage ran away, frightened He trembled in every limb, he could not see anything He was bare-headed, his hair was flying about When the beautiful lady tried to hold his hand, the sage shrieked, "I have got into a new house Forgive me, I have no dishonest motive I am old, and you are a young woman My morals are very strict, I assure you, I have not come here lured by passion Let me go Why do you worry me? Be you happy"¹⁵

His wife explains how everything has been metamorphosed by the goodwill of Krishna, and, as he enters the house, Sudāmā himself is transformed into a radiant youth

His *Daśamaskandh*, Xth canto of the *Bhāgavata*, is a comparatively inferior work The well-known lament of Jaśodā, when Krishna plunged into the Yamunā to recover a ball, is one of the finest poems of the author

Why, my dark one, did you plunge into the river, leaving your poor mother behind?

The waters of the Jumnā are dark, the black Kālī lives in it How can I hope to meet you again? How will you come back to me?

My child was my life, but fate has robbed me of it I did not know how to preserve my jewel, and it is now lost to me When well advanced in life, I had a son, I nursed him, I brought him up But the sweetness which I had gathered is now gone Bereaved, I am on fire

When will I see you—a pearl in your nose, anklets on your feet, the peacock-crown on your head,—coming back to me with the returning

१५ पूजा करीने पालव ग्रहचो, तव ऋषिजी नाठा जाय
थर थर धुजे ने काई न सूजे, छूटी जटा उघाडे शीश ,
हस्त ग्रहेवा जाय सुदरी, तव ऋषिजी पाडे चीश
हु तो सेजे जोउ छु घर नवा, मने नथी कपट विचार ;
हु तो वृद्ध ने तमो जोबन नारी, छे कठण लोकाचार
भोगासक्त हु नथी आव्यो, मने परमेश्वरनी आण ,
जावा द्यो मने का दमो छो, तमने हजो कल्याण

cattle? You have flung yourself into the deep waters, how will you live? Who will now play with your peacock, your parrot, and your doll?

You are gone, and I am alive, our love was destined to be short-lived How shall I face the world? Yes, the ball was just an excuse, really, you must have been offended with me When you were an infant, I once bound you to the mortar Did you plunge into the river because you remembered the insult?¹⁵

IX

Premānand has been credited with writing dramas, three of which were published some sixty years ago They are named *Roshadarśikā-satyabhāmākhyān*, *Pāñchālī-prasan-nākhyān* and *Tapatyākhyān* From a literary and artistic

૧૬ મારૂ માણકડુ રીસાવ્યુરે, સામઢીયા,
તારા મનમા એ શુ આવ્યુરે, સામઢીયા ,
હુ અવરાધળ માતાને મૂકી, શા માટે જાપાવ્યુ રે, સામઢીયા—મા૦
કાલિદીનું કાઢુ પાળી, માહે વસે કાઢી કાઢી ,
હવે આશા તે શી મઠવાની, કેમ આવે વનમાઢી રે, સા૦—મા૦
સતાન રૂપીયુ મોટું ધન, તે, કરમે લીધુ લૂટી ,
મેં નવ જાણ્યુ જતન કરીને, રતન પડચુ કેમ છૂટી રે, સા૦—મા૦
પુત્ર પામી હું છેલે આશ્રમે, ઉછેર્યો પ્રતિપાઢી ,
નીવનો રસ ઢઢી ગયો હુ, વીજોગ આગે વાઢી રે, સા૦—મા૦
નાકે મોતી પાયે ઘૂઘરી, મોર મુગટ શિર ધારી ,
ફરી રૂપ હુ વ્યાપી દેહુ, હરિ આવે ગૌ ચારી રે, સા૦—મા૦
કાને કુઢઢ મૂલમા મોરલી, સાજે ગોકુઢ આવો ;
મૂલ્યો છૌ કહી પેટ દેખાડો, મા કહી મને બોલાવો રે, સા૦—મા૦
પીત પીછોડી કાછ કછે, મુજ કને નેતરૂ માગે ,
હુ ઘરડી માને થાકી જાગૌ, કોળ વલોવવા લાગે રે, સા૦—મા૦
તુ પ્રાણેશ્વર તુ ગોપેશ્વર, ગોપી દેહ કેમ ધરશે ;
વાઢ સલાની કોળ વલે આ, ગાયો હીસી મરશે રે, સા૦—મા૦
ઉડા જઢમા વાસો કીધો, પાળીમા કેમ ગમશે ,
મોર પોપટ પૂતઢી તારે, રમકડે કોળ રમશે રે, સા૦—મા૦
કાઢ તુ ગયો ને હુ જીવુ છુ, ઓછા સળપળ માટે ,
સાચુ વહાલ તો ત્યા જનાયે, સામઢતા હૈંડુ ફાટે રે, સા૦—મા૦
કાઢપે પાષાળ કઢીળ છે, તેપે કઢીળ છે લોઢુ ,
વજ્ર તુલ્ય છે કાઢજુ મારૂ, લોકને શુ દેખાડુ મોઢુ રે, સા૦—મા૦
તે મલાતર દઢાનુ કૌધુ, મનમા ઢુલ કાઢ આવ્યુ ,
ઉલઢનુ બધન આજ સામર્યુ, તે માટે જાપાવ્યુ રે, સા૦—મા૦
નવ યસોદા ગાય ગોવાઢા ; વ્યાકુઢ વજનો નારી ;
ચાર ઘડી પૂઠે સર્વ પડજો, હઢધર રાખે વારી રે, સા૦—મા૦

point of view, they are inferior to the poet's other works. The technique of the dramas ascribed to Premānand is of a different and modern author. Their genuineness has been rightly challenged by Narsinhrao Divatia in an ably written paper, *Premānand-nā Nātako* ¹⁷. His arguments, which have remained unanswered, are that both stage and dramatic literature were unknown to Gujarāt in the whole period of five centuries, that Vallabh in his boastful recital of his father's literary achievements does not refer to any drama, that the original manuscripts have not been forthcoming in spite of repeated demands, and, that many phrases are based on idioms and ideas formed by Western influence. Further, a lapse of over fifty years has not led to the discovery of any other manuscript of the poet's dramas, or for that matter, of any drama composed in Old Gujarātī. Old Gujarātī had no drama, and to the literary men of Gujarāt, from Somasundar to Dayārām, the dramatic presentation of character, incident and dialogue was an unknown art.

X

Premānand left two sons, Vallabh and Jīvanarām. Vallabh is said to have composed, among other works, *Duhśāsan-rudhīrapānākhyān* (1724), *Yakshaprasānottar* (1725), *Kuntīprasannākhyān* (1781), *Kṛṣṇavishti*, *Premānandkathā*, *Yudhishtīrivrīkodar-ākhyān*, and a social story, *Mitrādharmākhyān* (1754). Some of these works are of more than doubtful authenticity.

According to these works, many of which are not genuine, Vallabh appears to have been engaged in defending his and his father's position as a poet, against Sāmal. He was impetuous and arrogant, a fanatical worshipper of his father and a jealous guardian of his reputation ¹⁸.

The poetry of Premānand is like the sun. The bards are but descended from the Brāhmins, but a Brāhman is the descendant of Brahmā.

¹⁷ *Sahitya Parishad* Report, Vol. III. Vide Note A to the Chapter

¹⁸ Note A to the Chapter

himself Chandra is inferior to the father of this lord of poets (meaning himself) ¹⁹

There is nothing on earth equal to the Gujarātī language It has all good qualities including mellifluity

Except some happy descriptions and passages depicting impetuous wrath, there is very little in the works of this poet which deserves serious attention His style is extravagant and bombastic, and lacks refinement

Mitrādharmākhyān, though attributed to Vallabh, is again by a different and later author ²⁰ The subject of the poem is friendship and opens with a reference to persons whose friendship was known to the Purānas Then follows one of the characteristic flourishes of the poet

Duryodhan's friend was Karn, though he courted disaster Premānand is the friend of his foes, and Mādhav (the god?) is his friend All men are friends of Vallabh, a friend is a soul of the body

Then he describes Gujarāt, and has a hit at Sāmal

In the city of Ratnapur, dwelt great poets, some like Prem, some like us Some poets who live there are of dark deeds (*Śāma lakshana-vantā*) who serve all and sundry, who disregard the vow of non-begging and take to the ways of mendicants, who try to become gods but without proper ceremonies, who forgetting the duties of a Brāhman disgrace Gujarāt by their residence

Indu and Mindu are the sons of two Brāhman friends in Ratnapurī For twelve years they live in the *āśrama* of a learned Brāhman at Bhrīgukacch Indu grows up to be a man of character, popular and learned, Mindu, an ignorant and insolent knave On their way home, the jealous Mindu tries to kill Indu and leaves him as dead in a village on the banks of the Mahī He returns to his city, and reports that Indu died on the way, later, he changes the story and informs Indu's father that his son is gone to Kāśī for further studies Mindu, now, poses as a prodigy of learning He is invited by the king to a debate with the Brāhmins of the court, and is worsted Unable to live up to his boast, he leaves the town, promising to return

१९ प्रेमनंदनी कविता, सविताशी पेखिये
ब्राह्मणथी भाट थया, वशज बिधिना आ तो,
कवीश्वरना पिताथी, चंद मंद देखीए

in two months with the solution of the questions put to him

Mindu, in his travels, comes to the village of *kolīs*, where he thought he had killed Indu, and is surprised to find that his friend was alive and had made it flourish. Indu welcomes Mindu, saves him from his *kolī* followers who, angry at the insolence of Mindu, want to kill him, and returns with Mindu to Ratnapurī as his disciple to help him secure a triumph over the Brāhmins of the town. When they attend court, Mindu refers all the problems put to him to his disciple. Indu solves all questions, and the king and the learned Brāhmins are all pleased. But the jealous Mindu again tries to deprecate Indu. The king, suspecting the truth, has enquiries made. The headman of the *kolīs* tells the whole truth to the king, who turns out Mindu and installs Indu as the royal *purohita*. Mindu meets with an untimely end.

If this work is not a forgery, *ākhyān* for the first time drops its borrowed Sanskritic framework and becomes a story of real life. But the life as it appears has neither greatness nor beauty.

XI

Of the contemporaries of Premānand, Ratneśvar (c. 1700) was the most notable. Among his works were *Bhāgavat* (1714), *Vārāgyalatā* and other *pad*s, and *Rādhākṛṣṇanā Mahinā*. Throughout life he was persecuted by rival *purāṇiks*, and, after his death, parts of his *Bhāgavat* were thrown into the Narmadā by his illiterate sons at the instance of his rivals. A great student of Sanskrit, he attained a purity, elegance and richness of style which were beyond the reach of his contemporaries. In his *Mahinā* he describes Rādhā in a conventional vein but with a charm of language approaching Modern Gujarātī poetry.

Madan let fly his arrows at her, and she fell pierced. Tied by the fetters of love, she cried "Harī! Harī!" She wept, disconsolate at the separation, wiping her tears with her cloth. As she looked into the mirror, she saw her eyes dawn-red.²¹

२१. प्रकटी मदन व्याधि, मो'हयो बाण साधी ,
हरि हरि कहे राधा, प्रेमाने पाश बाधी ,

Again she addresses the cloud

Oh cloud! Listen to my words Stop the rain and pause for a while
Tell me the news of Krishna What message do you bring from Madhu-
pūr? Did you see Krishnaji, sweet as his flute?²

XII

Sāmalbhatt was, after Premānand, the most notable poet of the period He was born about the year 1700 The earlier date, 1640, is obviously incorrect, for he composed his *Angadavishtī* in 1752 He was a Śrīgōd Mālvi Brāhman of Venganapur (now Gomtīpur), a suburb of Ahmedābād, and knew Sanskrit, Vraja and Persian He left behind him no followers, and no school of poetry

The Purāṇic works attributed to him are *Śiva Purāṇ* (1748), *Revākhand*, *Angadavishtī* (1752), *Rāvanmando-darīsamvād*, *Kālīmāhātmya*, *Sukadevākhyān*, *Draupadī-vastrāharan** The works of fiction attributed to him are *Batrīsaputlī*, *Sudābahoterī*, *Padmāvatī* (1718), *Nandabatrīśī*, *Vinechatnī Vārtā*,* *Barāsakasturīnī Vārtā*, *Sundar Kamadār*, and *Bhojakathā** His miscellaneous works, including those of doubtful authorship, are *Ranachhodanā Salokā*, *Udyamakarmasamvād*, *Sāmalratnamāl*, *Abhrām-kulīno-śaloko* or *Rustam-bahādurno Pavādo* (c 1725), *Rakhādāsacharitr*, *Viśveśvarākhyān*, and *Ranastambh*

Sāmal at one time was appraised as a great writer of original fiction and a peer of Premānand, but materials which are now available necessitate a re-estimate of his works He attempted Purāṇic subjects, but could only produce ordinary *ākhyāns* Though he is said to have

विरह विकल रोती, चीरशु नीर ल्हो'ती ,
अरुण नयन दीसे, आश जोता अरीसे

२२ सुण घन मूज वाणी, वर्षता राख पाणी,
क्षण इक थिर रेनी, कृष्णनी बात केनी ,
मधुपुरथकी आव्यो, शो समाचार लाव्यो,
मधुरी मुरली मीठो, कृष्णजी क्याय दीठो ?

* These works do not appear to be genuine works of the poet, *Vinechatnī Vārtā* is by Laghu and Sukh, two Jain authors of Broach *Bhojakathā* is definitely by a later author as it contains references to the Swāmi Nārāyan sect which came into existence at the end of the eighteenth century

twitted Premānand for being merely a copyist of older *purāṇiks* in the well known line 'कहेलु कहे ते शानो कवि ?' he took all his stories from early Gujarātī fiction. The originals he copied were mostly Jain compositions and not easily accessible twenty years ago. That he was not the independent man he pretended to be, is clear from the hyperbolic epithets which he showered upon his Pātīdār patron, Rakhīdās, whom he compared to Bhoj in generosity. His attack on the venerable Premānand, who, throughout life, maintained the dignity of the noble profession of a *purāṇik*, scarcely reveals good taste or generous impulses.

I have not learnt any Purāṇ and I have not studied the Vedas. I know no figure of speech and I am not sorry. I do not wander from house to house, and I have no son to sing my praises. I do not go from court to court to receive presents. Bards, Brāhmins and buffoons shout loudly, and the audience well pleased says 'Well done'. But I feel grieved at this.²³

Grapes were, indeed, sour. Critics half a century ago went into ecstasies over him thinking to have discovered in him a modern social reformer, but now we know that they were portraits of social conditions which generations of story-tellers had preserved from a past long gone by, and which Sāmal bodily adopted from his predecessors. He could not impart local colour, nor give a contemporary touch so well as Premānand. His observation was neither comprehensive nor keen, his views were conflicting and trite, and he had no fresh outlook to present. His plots, mostly taken or re woven from older works, show but slight improvement. He has been able to add to the old stock only a few characters or pictures of real life. The riddles are there, and so are the long, nerveless descriptions.

But his greatness lies in his matchless style and wonderful power of story-telling, in presenting didactic and

२३ भण्यो नथी कोई पुराण हुं, भण्यो नथी कोई वेद,
रसालकार न आवडे, मन न पामे खेद
घर घर राग ताणु नहि, पुत्र न मुज गुण गाय,
राज दरबारे रझळवु, मेळवी नथी पसाय.
भाट ब्राह्मण ने भाडवा, लाबी मूकी पोका
रीझी भला भला कहे, तेथी थाये शोक.

worldly maxims in striking parallelisms, and in preserving the romantic atmosphere of early fiction, and thereby providing a valuable literature of escape from the morbid influences of his times His *chappās*, made up of six-line verses, illustrating a point of view have acquired an abiding place in literature

He who was highly respected, left his pride, and was seen begging
 He who was highly respected bowed low to the mean and the lowly
 He who was highly respected became poor and was punished He who
 always saw good omens died, and left a widow The man of large wealth
 and no learning is but poor indeed God can make a mountain out of
 a blade of grass What is then the use of harbouring pride?

The poet stigmatised women thus

Some women have killed their husbands, some have left their high-placed husbands to marry menials, some have left their children and families and gone to live with others Some have deserted a king, to give themselves up to pleasures Some have killed their sisters and mothers-in-law, some their parents A woman is a living witch She robs the strongest of their strength²⁴

At another place, the poet recognised their worth after the fashion of his times

When young, she gives pleasure and company She looks after your bodily comforts, talks affectionately and ministers to pain and anguish She shares happiness and misery, sings your virtues sweetly She steals your heart and glories in it In old age, she nurses you When you see her, you forget your pain Not even in death, does she forsake you, out of affection, she immolates herself on the funeral pyre with you²⁵

२४. कैके माया कथ, कैके परण्या परहरिया ,
 कैके उच अमीर, तजी किकर वर करिया ,
 कैके कुटुंब परिवार, तजी चित्त बीजे चाली ,
 कैके महिपतिने मेलि, माननी गमते महाली ,
 कैके सासु नणद सहारिया, मात पिता मर्दन कर्या ,
 ए जुवति जात छे जक्षणी, जोर जोरावरना ह्यर्था

२५. जौबनमा दे रग, सग सुख टाढक तननी ;
 बालपणे करी वात, मटाडे पीडा मननी ;
 सुख दुःखमा सम भाग, राग रुडे गुण गाती ,
 चतुरा चित्त हरनार, सार उरमा मदमाती
 बळी वृद्धपणे सेवा करे, देख्याथी दिलदु ख टळे ,
 ए अतकाळ अळगी नहि, बहु स्नेहे साथे बळे

XIII

And thus we see two authors—Premānand, and Sāmal—standing in bright contrast to the murky background of other-worldliness which spread over two centuries, each proud of Gujarāt and the Gujarātī language, each a law unto himself. And of the two, Premānand stands out foremost. Before his sturdy faith in life and joy, the background recedes like the disappearing mist. With a humorous twinkle in his eye and a joyous note in his voice, he passes on to his world-weary generation the inspiration of Vyāsa.

CHAPTER VIII

THE END OF OLD GUJARĀT DAYĀRĀM (1767-1852)

Influence of Arabic, Persian and Urdu—*Mīrat-i-Ahmadī*—Political conditions (1707-1852)—Persian literature by Gujarātīs—Converts to Islam and their literature—The literature of the Pārsīs—The decadent literature—Dhīro (1753-1825)—Nīrānt (1770-1846)—Bhojō (1785-1850)—Pṛitamdās (c 1730)—The Svāmīnārāyan sect—Its poets—Dayārām (1767-1852)—Personality and temperament—His Life—His Works—His *garabīs*—The close of Old Gujarāt

THE period between 1707 and 1818 was one of wretchedness, disorder and misery for unfortunate Gujarāt Its wealth and weakness attracted the avarice of every ambitious raider in the vicinity Its wealth was destroyed, its agriculture and commerce were crippled, its culture was arrested Social life grew more stagnant and narrow What better soil can Akhā's gospel require?

I

The sorry tale of feuds and intrigues between 1700 and 1852 may be shortly recounted The policy of Aurangzib and the raids of the Marāthās marked the beginning of an era of disorder and misfortune The great landlords refused to pay tribute, the imperial viceroys, unable to enforce payment or maintain order, only looked after themselves Hindu zemīndars extended a welcome to Marāthās in the hope of shaking off the Muslim rule Petty Muslim fauzdars took advantage of the prevailing disorder to declare their independence as nawabs The chiefs of Junāgadh, Bālāsīnor, Pālanpur and Cambay raided one another's territory, plundering towns and destroying villages

Śivājī and the great Peshwās, no doubt, dreamt of a well-governed empire in India But their agents looked upon Gujarāt more as a treasure to be robbed than a country to be governed, and confined themselves to exacting an annually growing tribute Irresponsible agents of the Peshwās, the Gaekvāds and the Sindhīās extorted revenues and allowances from peasants by all possible means, with

the result that fertile districts were left uncultivated. The military occupation of the Marāthās is aptly described as a 'system without the breath of life, without elasticity, without the capacity of self-direction, imposed bodily upon a foreign people without even the care of preparing a foundation'.¹

The East India Company appeared on the scene, occupied the Surat castle in 1759, and soon set one Marāthā power fighting against another.

In 1761 Ahmadshāh Abdalī dealt a decisive blow to Marāthā supremacy at Pānīpat. Bālājī Bājirāo, the great Peshwā, died of a broken heart. His brother, the perfidious Raghobā, disputed succession with his son, fled to Surat and allied himself with the East India Company. The British got their chance. Māhādījī Sindhiā turned traitor to the Peshwā. The Gaekvād of Baroda was induced to throw off his allegiance to Poona, but, unable to withstand the combined force of the Hindu and Muslim chiefs of Gujarāt, threw himself in the arms of the Company. A Marāthā war followed.

Gujarāt was thus turned into one vast field of endless battle. "In this city," says Forbes in his *Oriental Memoirs* (1781) referring to Ahmedābād, "commerce once met with every encouragement. It was the resort of merchants, artists and travellers of every description. It now exhibits solitude, poverty and desolation." The trade and commerce of Cambay and Ghoghā were equally ruined.

In 1803 the British wrested Broach from Daulatrāo Sindhiā. They protected the possession of the Gaekvād or Sindhiā against the Peshwā, or acquired the Peshwā's rights over Gujarāt against them. And with the battle of Kirkee, in 1818, the Company finally stepped into the place of the Peshwā in Gujarāt. Until 1853, when they took the district of Panch Mahals on lease from Sindhiā, the British continued to quell disorder, destroy hostile powers, and lay the foundation of settled government. In this process, they also dismembered Gujarāt. Jhālōr and Sīrohī, once centres of Gujarātī culture, were handed over

1 Bombay Gazetteer, Vol I, p. 432

to Rajputānā, and Dungarpūr, Vānsavādā and Alirājpur to Central India

II

Political influence directly operated only upon a very narrow province of life. On the sultanate being established, Persian and, later, Urdu became the language of court, law and office. Muslim authors attached to the Sultans or the viceroys wrote many works in Persian. *Mirat-i-Sikandarī* (1536), written by a Gujarātī convert from Mehmādābād, is the first valuable Muslim history of Gujarāt by a Muslim.

But Alī Mahmud Khan Bahadur was perhaps the most noteworthy Muslim historian of Gujarāt. He suppressed riots in Ahmedābād in 1730, was a superintendent of customs in 1748, and was confirmed in the said office in 1753 by Raghunathrāo and Dāmājī Gāekvād who finally overthrew the representatives of the shadowy imperial power in Gujarāt. His *Mirā-i-Ahmadī* is a work of great importance.

The castes from which Hindu officials were drawn also took to the study of Arabic, Persian and Urdu. They claimed men who could teach these languages. A few literary men also composed poems in Persian and Urdu. But the influence of these languages on Gujarātī literature was neither deep nor lasting.

Thakordās Daru, a Kāyastha of Surat, sent a *kasīda*, a panegyric poem, to the Mogul Emperor every year. Nandlāl Munshi of Broach (c. 1700) attracted the attention of emperor Mahmūd Shāh Ālamgīr by his poems. Kavī Bhagvāndās (1681-1746), a divan of the nawab of Surat, composed poetry in Arabic, Persian, Urdu, besides Sanskrit, Gujarātī and Marāthī. Śrīdās, a Nāgar Brāhmaṇa, composed *Fatuhāt-i-Ālamgīrī* (1731) a history of the reign of Aurangzīb, in Persian. Premānand is believed to have directed his pupil Virjī to compose poetry in the style of Persian and Urdu poets. Sāmāl Bhat knew Persian and was the first poet who freely used Persian words. Manoharswāmī (1788-1845), a poet, was a student of Persian. And Raṇchhodjī Dīvān (1768-1841), a warrior and a literary man of Kāthiā-

wāḍ, was 'an acknowledged patron of poets, men of science and literary genius'² He wrote *Tarikh-i-Sorath*, The History of Sorath, and *Rukat-Gunagun*, Diverse Letters, in Persian, besides poems in Gujarātī and Vraja Dayārām composed poems in Punjābī and Urdu But such literary work did not come natural to the Gujarātīs, and, when Persian and Urdu ceased to be official languages, their interest in them, for all practical purposes, came to an end

The Muslim rulers exerted a more enduring influence on dress, music, luxuries and pleasure hunts of diverse kinds, and the upper classes in Gujarāt who adopted them enriched Gujarātī by contributing foreign words and idioms appertaining to these activities

III

Under the Chālukya and the Vāghelā kings, Muslim traders and mercenaries came and settled in Gujarāt Their religious freedom was safeguarded Siddharāja gave compensation to the traders of Cambay whose mosque had been destroyed by Hindus a remarkable instance of the sense of justice which inspired Hindu kings Muslims were often absorbed in the Hindu community In 1178, when Bāla Mūlraja defeated the army of Shāhābu-ud-dīn Ghori, the Turks, the Afghans and the Moguls were admitted as Rajputs, and many Muslim women were converted to Hinduism and accepted as wives by Hindus Since 1297, Turks, Habshīs, Abyssinians, Manchukes, Arabs, Persians, Khorasanīs dribbled into Gujarāt as part of some conquering army or as adventurers in search of employment, and constituted the unruly and irresponsible element in every army The Sīdīs of Janjira, in 1670, accepted the vassalage of emperor Aurangzīb, and, as admirals of the imperial fleet, settled in Surat

But the great bulk of Muslims, who form about eight to ten per cent of the total strength of the Gujarātīs, was made up of Hindu converts They never held themselves aloof from the social and cultural influences of their own land and lived on peaceful terms with the Hindus

2 Mrs Peston in Blackwood's *Edinburgh Magazine*, quoted by D B Zaveri, *Milestones in Gujarati Literature*

Even the proselytisers gave to Islam as local a colour as they possibly could. Nur-ud-din Satagar or Satguru came to Gujarāt about 1001 as a missionary of the Ismailia sect of Islam, and the converts made by him and his disciples came to be called Khojas. According to their tenets, Alī was the tenth incarnation of Viṣṇu, and Hinduism and Islam were one. The *bhājans* of this sect, though without literary flavour, are turned out on the usual Gujarātī pattern. Other Muslim sects like the Mātāpanth, the Pīrānāpanth and the Borahs who follow Pīr Chishtī have their *bhājans* in the same style. A well-known poetess, Ratanbai, of the last named sect has composed songs in honour of Kayam-din Pīr distinctly under the inspiration of the *pads* of Mirānbāi.³

IV

A few Persians, flying before the iconoclastic zeal of the Arabs, left Persia and settled near Sanjān in the Surat District about 758. The settlers and their descendants accepted girls from lower classes of Hindus as wives, and, except in religious matters, adopted the language and the social habits of their neighbours.

Some Parsi poets composed in Persian. Bahman Kaikobad composed *Kissa-i-Sanjān* (1600), a poem on the landing of the Parsis, at Sanjān. Mulla Feroze bin Kaus (c. 1758-1830) a native of Broach, wrote an epic in Persian on the conquest of India by the English under the name of *George-nameh* at the instance of Jonathan Duncan, Governor of Bombay, in the style and metre of Firdousi's great epic.

The Parsi poets composed poems in the inaccurate variety of Gujarātī prevailing in the villages of Surat, though they freely borrowed words from Persian, Pehlavi and Zend. Many of them studied Sanskrit and translated Zend or Pehlavi religious books into Sanskrit before rendering them in Gujarātī. One of the earliest of such translations is *Ardavīraf-nameh* by Behram Lakhmidhar (1451). Later poets, following Gujarātī poets, composed *ākhyāns* from their religious literature, or from the

3 Vide D. B. Zaveri's article, *Gujarātī Sāhitya*, p. 188

Shāh-nameh of Fīrdausī Their technique, taste and style form the curiosities of Gujarātī literature For instance Erwad Rustom Peshotan of Surat composed *Zarthosht-nameh* (1676), *Siyavaksha-nameh* (1680) and other poems His works bear traces of the influence of Sanskrit, as also of Hindu manners and customs adopted by the Parsis His description of the ladies of Iran runs

The ornament on your head is like the full moon and the brilliant sun of *amāvāsyā*, it sheds a flood of light on this arid desert The ornament on your fore-head is studded with the planets Mercury, Jupiter and Venus Who set your nose ring with *subcherāga gem*?⁴ Your ear-rings are made of rubies and pearls, God himself has given you the ornaments of your neck The bracelets and wristlets flash like lightning, the anklets tinkle on your feet

V

Under conditions such as those described, the bulk of the literature only echoed Akhā's weary gospel⁵ Quotations from a few poets will show the tendency of the times The *bhajans* of Dhīrā (1753-1825) were in every one's mouth A Brahman by caste, he came from Gothdā in the district of Baroda Domineered by a very hot-tempered wife, he led an unhappy life, composing *pads*, called *kāfis*, and publishing them in a somewhat novel way He wrote out his poems on paper, enclosed them in pieces of bamboos and set them afloat in the river Mahī for a chance reader to pick up His works are didactic and philosophical His best known work is *Svarupanī kāfī* His *kāfis* are written in a clear, homely and telling style, and have the sentiments of Akhā without his lashing bitterness His outlook, for instance, is expressed in his *Jñān Kakkā*,

4 A gem which gives light at night

तम सीश फुल पुनम चद ने अमाशी सूर ।
 ए वेरान राणमा एथी घणु वरशे छे नूर ॥
 तम नीडाळ टीक बुध बहुरेस्पत शुकर जडी ।
 तम नाशका नथ ते सबचेराण कोणे घडी ॥
 तम कान कूडल जडेआ जाणे माणक ने मोते ।
 कोट आभरण पेहेरावेआ आप घणीए पोते ॥
 कर चड पोहोची जाणे वीज चमक चमकीने जाए ।
 पाए पैजण ते नेवरनो जह्मकार ज थाए ॥

5 See Note A at the end of the chapter

The Alphabet of Knowledge When he comes to the letter 'Da' he says

'Da' is for *dahāpan* wisdom Why do you adulterate your wisdom? To-day, you are wise, very wise, indeed But how many wise men have sunk? Aren't you ashamed to see them sinking? The wise have sunk in worldliness Wisdom was of no avail to them when Death got hold of them He who knows the true wisdom about the body alone is happy "

Nirānt Bagat (1770-1846) of Dethān, near Baroda, and a Pātīdār by caste, was another popular poet His outlook was philosophic, and his language simple and charming He uses Urdu words more freely than any other poet of his time

Such an occasion will never come, let us worship Hari A fool will give a diamond for a cownie Let us worship Hari with affection What can we say?

The flowing water will continue to flow Fathers and grandfathers have gone before us How can we be left behind? Son, wealth and wife, family and descendants are yours, but, at the moment of death, who will save whom?

Remember, friends are only bound by self-interest Know this for certain no one is another's relative or casteman

Death hovers over your head It will do what it likes, and when Death, the counsellor of evil will not let any one go The fear of Death is the greatest fear of all Why are you trustful? Why do you live in enjoyment? You fish of shallow waters! When he comes no one will listen to you Only those who worship Hari are like Hari If you believe so, listen to the name of Hari "

૬ ડહ્ડા ! ડોઠે શુ ડહાપગ રે ડાહ્યો ડાહ્યો થઈ આજે ?

ડાહ્યા ડૂલ્યા કેટલા રે તે તુ જોડ નવ લાજે
ડહાપગ દરિયાવ હતા તે ડૂલી ગયા ડુનિયાની માય ,
ડહાપગ તેનુ કાઈ કામ ન આવ્યુ જમડાએ જાલ્યા જ્યાય ,
દિવાર કેડ ડહાપગ રે જાણે તે તો રાજે ડહ્ડા !

૭ આવો અવસર ફરી ફરી નહીં આવે રે, હરિ ભજીએ
મૂરખ હીરો કોડી તુલ્ય ગમાવે, હેતે હરિ ભજીએ ૧
વેહેતા જઠ તો વહી જશે રે શુ કહીએ, હરિ ભજીએ
પિતૃપિતામહ સર્વ ગયા તો આપગ કયાથી રહીએ, હેતે હરિ ભજીએ. ૨
સુતવિત્ત દારા કુઠ કુડુબ સહુ તારે રે, હરિ ભજીએ
અતવેઠાએ કોને કોળ ડગારે, હેતે હરિ ભજીએ ૩
સલ્લે જાણજો સ્વારથનુ છે સાક્ષી રે, હરિ ભજીએ
નથી જાણજો નેક સગુ ને ન્યાતી, હેતે હરિ ભજીએ. ૪
મૃત્યુ જાણજો માથા ડપર ભમતું રે, હરિ ભજીએ
જ્યારે ત્યારે કરશે એનુ ગમતુ, હેતે હરિ ભજીએ ૫

Bhojo Bhagat (1785-1850) a more aggressive poet of this class, a Pātīdār from Kāthiāvāḍ, did not know how to read and write. He learnt *bhakti* and *yoga* from some unknown ascetic wandering in the forests of Gīrnār and spent his life in singing *pads*. His *Selaryākhyān* is not an outstanding work, but his principal contribution to literature is his *Chābkhā*, lashes, in which he attacked social vice with effective bitterness. He died at Virapur and left a large number of followers.

His disgust for life is fearful

I saw the miseries of the world, and sent away my wife to her parents. One child would ask for a top, another, a cord, the third would say "Get me raiment made", and a fourth would like good food.

When I get anklets made, my wife wants a bodice, when I get a ring made, she wants a nose-ring. She does not let me rest in peace the whole day. Let the cage she had made for me be broken. She will go to sleep scolding, and scolding, she will rise. She is an expert in quarrels, I have never seen her with a bright face, the whole day long she does not leave me.

When guests come, she conceals herself in the house. When the children become naughty, she pinches them cruelly. Now I have sent her away to her parents with all her clothes. And my worries have gone with her. Bhojo Bhagat says, thanks to my teacher, I will never have such a wife.^a

काळ कुबुद्धि केड न मेले कोनी रे, हरि भजीए
 बहु बीक छे मृत्यु मोटा मोनी, हेते हरि भजीए ६
 शो भरोसे शा सुखमा तु माहाले रे, हरि भजीए
 थोडा जळना जीव तारु नहीं चाले, हेते हरि भजीए ७
 हरि भजे ते हरि सरखा जन जाणो रे, हरि भजीए
 एक ईच्छो तो हरिनु नाम परमाणो, हेते हरि भजीए ८
 मन माने तो तारा काजनु कहीए रे, हरि भजीए
 नीरात नामे जमने हाथ न जईए, हेते हरि भजीए ९
 रे में दुख दुनियाणा भाळी, परणी नारी पियेर मेली बाळी रे
 एकज मागे भमरडो ने बीजो ते मागे जाळी रे,
 त्रीजो रे कहे मने डगली शीवडावो ने चौथो ले छे पेट पाळी रे में
 कडला घडावु तयारे काबीओ रे मागे, ने वींटी घडावु तयारे बाळी रे ;
 आठ ज पहोर मने जंपवा न दे, एना पाजरिया मेल परजाळी रे रे में
 वढती रे सूए ने वढती रे ऊठे, कजीआमा छे कारी रे ;
 ऊजळा मुख एना कदिये न दीठा, ए तो आठे पहोर ओशियाळी रे. रे में
 बारणे रे आव्या पाच पहणा ने धाइन ते घरमा पेठीरे ,
 छोराने तो धमची मचावे तयारे चूटला ले छे ताणी ताणी रे रे में ;

The hymn of death is the best known lash of the poet

Oh soul! Worship the Creator The world is but a dream, surely you will leave your wealth and riches, property and treasures, sons and grandsons, and you will only bear the lashes of death

The wealthy have left behind them their houses, high with storeys, beautiful with terraces and endless windows

Flowers will be thrown over him, four cocoanuts will be tied under him, he will be anointed and bound to the bamboo bier, and people will bewail his death

In life, he never slept without a bed and bedstead, he did a thousand other things But, all the same, he will be stoked on the funeral pyre as if a blacksmith is melting iron, and burnt to ashes

They will go to the burning place, set up a pyre, and lay on him a load of wood They will then set him on fire and leave him His body will be in flames They will, then, take their bath, and abandon him Bhojo Bhagat says, men and women will shed tears for ten days and then forget him⁹

Prītamdās (c 1730), a *bhāt* by caste, has composed *Sārasagītā* (1774) and the usual kind of *pads* on *śringār*, *vairāgya* and *jñān* Some of his *pads* bear the impress of originality His well-known *pad* runs

The ways of Hari are for the brave, the coward knows them not

Who offers his head first, he alone can utter His name He only enjoys eternal bliss who dedicates his son, his wealth, his wife, his head

Who are alive and yet dead to the world, they only can dive into the sea for pearls Who ever defies death, ceases to suffer But the spectator on the shore never gains a cowrie

- પટોળા લઈને મેં તો પિયર વઢાવી નેં દુઃખડા મેલ્યા ટાઢી રે,
 ભોજો ભગત કહે ગુહપ્રતાપે કદીએ ન પરણુ આવો નારી રે રે મેં.
- ૯ પ્રાણીઆં મજી લેને કિરતાર, આ તો સ્વપનુ છે સસાર,
 ઘન દોલત નેં માલ જીનીના, પુત્ર અને પરિવાર,
 એમાથી જાઈશ તુ એકલો, પછે જાણે જમના માર રે પ્રાં
 ડાકી મેડી અજબ શરૂઆ, ગોલતનો નહિ પાર;
 કોડી ધ્વજ નેં લક્ષપતિ, તેના બાઘ્યા રહ્યા ઘરબાર રે પ્રાં
 ઉપર ફુલડા ફરફરે ને, હેઠે શ્રીફળ ચાર;
 ઠીક કરીને એને ઠાઠડીમા ઘાલ્યો, પછે વાસે પડે પોકાર રે પ્રાં
 સેજ તઢાયુ વિના સુતો નહિ, જીવ હુન્નર કરતો હજાર,
 ધોરી ધોરીને જૂંબ જઢાયો, જેમ લોઢુ ગાઢે લુવાર રે. પ્રાં
 સ્મશાન જઈં જેહે જાડકોને, માથે છે કાઠનો માર,
 અગ્નિ મેલીને ઉમા રહ્યા, અને નિશ્ચય કરે અગાર રે. પ્રાં
 સ્નાન કરીને ચાલી નોકઢ્યા નર નેં વઢી, નાર;
 ભોજો ભગત કહે દસ દી રોઈને, પછે મેલ્યો વિસાર રે. પ્રાં

The ways of love burn with the flames of fire Many look at them and run away, those that jump into them are happy, those who look on are miserable

To barter the head for rich prize is not easy, the pure, who welcome death in life itself, attain greatness

Those who love Him are happy When the kingdom of Rāma comes, they alone see the glory of the Lord of Pritam¹⁰

VI

The sect of Svāmīnārāyan greatly influenced the literature of the period Its great leader, Sahajānand, born at Chapāya near Ayodhyā about 1781, was a disciple of Rāmānand, the founder of the sect The sect drew its inspiration partly from the Vaishnavite doctrines of Rāmānuja, but developed special features owing to Sahajānand's influence Its speciality lay in its antagonism to the gross epicurianism of the Vallabh sect Purity of conduct was above all virtues Twenty-six vows were enjoined on *sādhus* in relation to women, even seeing a woman, or her portrait, or pronouncing her name was prohibited The sect did very good work among the poorer classes and the turbulent tribes of Kāṭhiāvāḍ The lot of even untouchables was somewhat relieved by its philanthropic activities But Sahajānand went the way of the successors of Vallabhācharya in surrounding himself with semi-regal pomp and in having Śrī Krishna worshipped in his own person The principal seat of the sect at Vaḍatāl is one of the wealthiest in Gujarāt The sect,

१०. हरिनो मारग छे शूरानो, नहि कायरनु काम जो ने ;
 परथम पहेलू मस्तक मूकी, बळती लेबु नाम जो ने ;
 सुत वित दारा शिश समरपे, ते पामे रस पीवा जो ने ;
 सिधु मध्ये मोती लेवा, माहि पड्या मरजीवा जो ने
 मरण आगमे ते भरे मूठी, दिलनी दुग्धा वामे जो ने ,
 तीरे उभो जुवे तमासो, ते कोडी नव पामे जो ने
 प्रेम पथ पावकनी ज्वाला, भाळी पाछा भागे जो ने ;
 माही पड्या ते महा सुख माणे, देखनारा दाझे जो ने
 माथा साटे मोधी वस्तु, सापडवी नहीं स्हेल जो ने ;
 महापद पाम्या ते मरजीवा, मूकी मननो मेल जो ने.
 राम अमलमा राता माता, पूरा प्रेमी परखे जो ने ;
 प्रीतमना स्वामीनी लीला, ते रजनी दन नरखे जो ने.

however, retained its purity, and its *sādhus* are still found in villages, bringing religious and moral succour to the simple and the illiterate

Many poets who composed poetry in the early decades of the nineteenth century were *sādhus* of this sect. Prominent among them were Muktānand (1761-1824), a friend of Sahajānand, Brahmānand, originally a *bhāt* by caste, and Premānand Sakhī (1779-1845). All these poets sang about Krishna's amours, rhymed moral teachings, and bewailed the futility of life in the best style of the age. Their principal works were either *padas* or *garabīs*. In beauty of language, Brahmānand surpasses all his contemporaries except Dayārām, but, of these three, Premānand was a poet of a high order, perhaps, the only one between Narasimh and Dayārām who sang with a passionate intensity of feeling, rich with the impulse of *bhakti*. Like Narasimh, he felt himself a *gopī* of Krishna, but as embodied in Sahajānand. Hence it was that he received the nick-name of Sakhī, a female friend. Despite the monotony largely inherent in the subject, there is some artistic and imaginative beauty in his verse.

VII

To this weary, lifeless age, came a genuine poet, his wings unclipped by convention, soaring on high in search of real art and emotion. In 1767 Dayārām, a Sāthodarā Nāgar Brāhman, was born in picturesque Chāndod—the charming village which, like Narcissus, looks at its own beauty reflected in the slow-moving, crystal waters of the Nabadā. Left an orphan in infancy, he was brought up by an aunt. As a boy, he was attractive, naughty and mischievous. He sang, played on musical instruments, and loved, like Krishna, to play pranks on the young women of Chāndod, who in those days had a proverbial reputation for flippancy. More than one antic is recorded of how he took liberties with them, broke their pots, and provoked the ire of respectable townsmen. Once he had to flee to an adjoining village, where he met Keśavānand, a *sanyāsin*, and became his disciple.

At fourteen, he moved to Dabhoi, an adjoining town. He travelled far and wide, and visited Gokul, Mathurā, Vrindāvan, Kāsi and other famous places of pilgrimage. He carried the waters of the Ganga on his shoulders, and bathed at Rāmeśvar in the extreme south. Wherever he went, he sought the company of the learned and the devout. He studied Hindi, Vraj, and Sanskrit literature and mastered the works of Old Gujarātī poets. Vaishnavism soon attracted him, and he changed his name from Dayāsankar to Dayārām. He visited Śrī Nāthajī, the principal shrine of the Vaishnava sect. In the temples of *goswāmīs*, where the great *pandits* and poets of the time met, he acquired both inspiration and technique.

He had the personality of a born lover. Handsome, graceful and fastidious, he was a beau, and though he had little means of his own, the generosity of friends and admirers enabled him to live in the fashion of his times. He wore his hair long like the *goswāmīs*, and greased it with perfumed oils. His lips were red with betel-leaf, and he often partook of the mild and dreamy intoxicant, *bhāng*. His *angarkhā* was of thin, Dacca muslin, tight-fitting and embroidered. His *dhotī* came from Nagpur, and had the broad red silk border which even the rich coveted, and he wore it with finical grace. He never went out of doors without first donning a newly dyed and fresh-folded, deep-red turban from Nadiad.

He sang with masterly skill, his melodious voice quivering with passion. His conversation was fascinating and he could hold forth with great learning on the religious topics of the day. His temperament was free, loving, careless, defiant of conventions and restive against all control. He was too proud to serve or to earn. His worship of Viṣṇu soon led him to play the role of a *bhakta*; it was the only way in which he could lead a life congenial to his temperament.

He was proud, passionate and irascible. "My head will not bow," he proudly said, "to any one except Śrī Krishna." Gopālādās, who was a power in Baroda, invited him to compose poems in honour of Ganapati. He replied, "I am

wedded to the Lord of *gopīs* I have no other Lord, and I do not care whether you are pleased or wroth with me”¹¹

His patron *goswāmī* once treated him with discourtesy. The irate poet declined to go to him, shut the door in his face, and broke the rosary which he wore as a mark of discipleship. On another occasion, he insisted on having a seat as high as the *goswāmī*'s. Once he abused the *goswāmī* of Kānkrolī who used his spiritual role to cover a multitude of sins.

Dayārām had not the making of a helpless *gopī* in him, nor the humility and self-surrender of a *bhakta*. The efforts of a prudish generation to conceal his foibles have failed. Dayārām was human, all too human. His sex instinct was powerful, he loved women for what they were and for what they could give him, and he could not relinquish himself to the pure *bhakti* which while it abhorred women in life lingered long and fondly over the imaginary amours of Rādhā and Krishna. He could not be the bride of an imaginary Krishna, he sought delight in admiring women as they sang the *garbā* or bathed in the river. Some of his fair admirers were drawn from the highest society.

He loved Ratanbāī, the widow of a goldsmith, and openly lived with her for thirty years. He did not look upon her as a curse, for he loved life well. He wondered how Ratan, a goldsmith's widow, and he, a Brāhman, came to be bound by such an indissoluble bond, and he attributed the relation to their being husband and wife in their past life—a *Tarangalolā* feeling in actual life. He flung respectability and conventions away, and besought a *goswāmī*'s blessing on them both, eliciting the promise that they would meet again as husband and wife in a subsequent life a hundred years later. He loved Ratan passionately, and, for a man of his temperament, steadfastly. Once he drove her out of his house, but Ratan's devotion knew no bounds and she came back and served him loyally. Dayārām, orthodox Brāhman, cooked for both, and both took their meals together.

११. एक वर्यो गोपीजनवल्लभ, नही स्वामी बीजो ,
नहीं स्वामी बीजो रे, मारे नहीं स्वामी बीजो एक वर्यो०

On his death, he left her provided for, but his relatives robbed her of what had been settled on her. The poet died on the 9th February 1852. He left a large number of followers and admirers all over Gujarāt. Till the last, he retained his sanity of outlook. A disciple wanted his permission to worship his sandals after his death—an honour generally reserved for the semi-divine, but the poet with humility would not grant it. "Who am I," he said, "that you should ask this of me?"

VIII

Dayārām's works may be classified as follows

(i) Compositions relating to the Vaishnava sect of Vallabh e.g. *Vallabhano Parivār*, *Chorāśī Vaishnavanun Dhol*, *Bhaktiposhan*. They are of very little literary value.

(ii) Religious or philosophical works containing the doctrines of this sect, e.g. *Rasikavallabh* and *Satasaryā* in Hindī.

(iii) Purāṇic ākhyāns, e.g. *Ajāmālākhyān*, *Vaktrāsuraākhyān*, *Satyabhāmākhyān*, *Okhāharan*, *Daśamalīlā* and *Rāsapanchādhyāyī*.

(iv) Miscellaneous works like *Narasimh Mahetānī Hundī*, *Shadrītuvarnan* and *Nṛtibhaktinān padō*.

(v) *Garabīsangraha*. The collection of *Garabīs*.

Rasikavallabh is a poem expounding the Vaishnava doctrine as against the Vedānta of Śankara. The style is elegant, rich with the influence of Sanskrit and Vraj, and full of conventional imagery. The ākhyāns have nothing extraordinary about them. The poet lacked the art both of story-telling and portrait-painting which the eminent authors of the previous century possessed. His *padās*, ethical and devotional, do not rise above the level of the age which could claim the elegance of Brahmānand. Dayārām also wrote many poems in Hindī, Vraj, Marāthī, Punjabi, Sanskrit and Urdu.

IX

It is the *Garabīsangraha* which makes Dayārām so great a poet. In an age predominated by Akhā's note of other-worldliness, he dares to be human. He adopts, no doubt,

the cloak acceptable to his world He sings, "I have wedded the Lord of the *gopīs*, and know no other master,"

"The relation of the *gopī* and Govind is unique, and could not be understood by the worldly" He also, at places, echoes the cheap sneers flung at life by contemporary poets But these lines do not ring true *Bhakti*, to him, was an emotion intensely human and vividly passionate He weaves exquisite conceits around this primitive theme, and he invests even the stereotyped Rādhā-Krishna amours with fresh voluptuousness

Dayārām's genius was lyrical and found a suitable vehicle in the *garabī* Though used for the main purpose of providing popular songs for the *garabā* dance, it was a great vehicle for lyrical expression The first two or three lines of a *garabī* were generally lyrical, the rest were thrown into couplets, illustrating the dominant idea Dayārām could not eliminate the couplets, popular taste and the exigencies of the *garabā* would not permit such a departure But he invested the form, as a whole, with a charm and rhythm of his own He made use of popular melodies His language was the most perfect used so far by any poet of Gujarāt, and his words were so arranged that sense and sound and meaning blended in harmony to express one brief experience with perfect art Some of his best *garabīs* were addressed by the *gopīs* to Krishna

Don't look at me like that, my love! My heart is a-flutter with your side-long glances, and it's pierced by your sharp pointed eyes Yet to look at you is its only joy

In you live all beauty, all joy To look at you is sheer bliss As the pearl, pendent from your nose, sways to and fro, so sways my heart¹²

No translation can express the bewitching charm of the original The following address to Krishna's flute is the most exquisite lyric in the language

૧૨ વાકુ મા જોશો વરણાગીઆ, જોતા કાઢજામા કાઢૈ થાય છે જી રે.

અણિયાઢી આલે વાલમ પ્રાણ મારો પ્રોયો છે

મોહન મુલડુ જોડ મનડુ મોહાય છે જી રે ; વાકું.

નલ્લશીલ્લ લગી રૂપ રસિક મધુર મનોહર,

જ્યા જોડે ત્યા આલ ઢરી જાય છે જી રે , વાકું.

Thou art his pet, his darling, O flute! Thy enthralling voice hath captured his heart but mine is pierced by every note You drain off the nectar from his lips What matter if I die?

Thy voice drives me mad Like a lingering torment, your shafts pierce my aching heart

Swords and spears are merciful to thy venom-tipped shafts, O flute! For, they kill at a stroke, but thou delightest in slow torture

Wives have thrown their honour to the winds, saints, their saintliness forgetting, have sinned, distracted, they have wandered through forests wishing but to hear thy voice

Though thy dizzy pride might make you forget, remember what thou art Remember, thou art but a wretched reed, rendered divine by his touch

Thousands thou hast maddened, wedding my Lord, O flute! What wonder if thou hast in his company learnt to steal? For, he steals butter, but thou hast stolen his heart

My pride has crumbled into dust, wherein lie the thousand humbled But though all might answer to thy call, it is not to thee they answer, but, to the slave of our Lord¹³

૧૩ માનીતી તુ છે મોહનતણી હો વાસલડી રે !
 તુને વાલમ કરે છે ઘણુ વહાલરે, હો વાસલડી !
 મોઠો આવડો શો સોહોર, મોટ્તો નદનો કિશોર,
 તારુ આવડુ શુ જોર, મુડી ! કાલજડુ મા કોર રે, હો વાસલડી !
 પીંચ અવરામૃત પીંચુ તણુ તુ, હો વાસલડી રે !
 અમારે શોક્ય સરીલુ તુ સાલ રે, હો વાસલડી ! મીઠો
 વાજી વાજીને વિટવલ કર્યા હો વાસલડી !
 તુ તો પીડે અમારા પ્રાણ રે હો વાસલડી !
 મુળતા પડે છે હૃદે સાસરા હો વાસલડી !
 તાહારા ટહુકારાથી મોહવાળ રે હો વાસલડી ! મીઠો
 જોર ઘણુ છે તારી ક્ષપટમા હો વાસલડી !
 ભલા તુ થી ભાલા તરવાર રે હો વાસલડી !
 એકી વારે તુ હળી નાલની હો વાસલડી !
 ઓ મુડી થોડે મા માર રે, હો વાસલડી ! મીઠો
 પતિવ્રતાના પળ મુકાવ્યા હો વાસલડી !
 તે તો છોડાવીયા સતીઓના સત્ય રે, હો વાસલડી !
 વનવન કુજ કુજ ફેરવ્યા તે હો વાસલડી !
 તેં તો સહુની કરી છે એવી ગત્ય રે, હો વાસલડી ! મીઠો
 ગરજે ગુમાનભરી આવડી, હો વાસલડી !
 તુ તો જોની વિચારી તાહારી જાત રે, હો વાસલડી !
 જોતા તું કાઠ કેરો કરકડો હો વાસલડી !
 તુને આજ મઠી છે ઠકરાત રે, હો વાસલડી ! મીઠો

Here is another little lyric of beauty

Listen to me, my friend! Nanda's son is so charming and his words are so dear Gokul is mad after him, for witchery lives in his eyes Hear me, my friend! He is so handsome and so dark The charmer is so fascinating! I love him so that I feel like pressing him in a warm embrace¹⁴

In another *garabī*, the *gopī* invites her lover

Come to my house, my King, Lover mine! Come to my house and love me For days, I have treasured in my heart many sweet things They are on my lips I will tell them if my king meets me I am only your bond-slave, you held my hand, and I pledged myself to you My youth is fleeing come, my king! You have many like me, to me, you are but one I cannot live without my king To whom shall I confide my misery? I have made my bed with flowers, my heart is astir with joy My soul! Will you come and rest there? I shall shampoo your feet My love, Lord of Dayā! Prince of Vraj! I yearn for you for days Come and satisfy me, my soul!¹⁵

-
- गतविहीणा ते घेहेला कर्या, हो वासलडी ,
 ते तो लगाड्यु लालशु लगन रे, हो वासलडी ,
 चोरनी सगे शोखी चोरवा, हो वासलडी ,
 वहाले माखण चोर्यु ने ते तो मन रे, हो वासलडी—मीठो०
 मान न राख्यु मानीतणु, हो वासलडी ,
 ते तो सहने कर्या पाएमाल रे, हो वासलडी ,
 दयाना प्रीतमनी दासी तुं खरी, हो वासलडी ,
 तेडे सहने बेठी तु ठाम रे, हो वासलडी—मीठो०
- १४ नदनदन अलबेलडो रे, एना वहाला लागे छे वेण ,
 साभळ सही मारी
 घेलु कीधु गोकुळियु रे, एना कामणगारा नेण ;
 साभळ सही मारी.
 नटवर सुदर शामळो रे, मनगमतो मोहनलाल ;
 हृदया सरसो लेइ लपटावुं, मुने एवु लागे छे वहाल ,
 साभळ सही मारी
१५. मोहोले पधारी मारा राज, माणीगर ! मोहोले पधारो ,
 वहाल वधारो ब्रजराज, माणीगर मोहोले पधारो
 करी राखी छे एकठी, घणा दिवसनी छे गोठ ,
 राज मळें तो कीजीए आवी रही छे मारे होठ माणीगर०
 हु सरखी बहु आपने, मारे तो एक आप ,
 रहेवातुं नथी राज वण, कोने कहुं परिताप ? माणीगर०
 सेज समारी फूलडे, आनद उर न समाय ;
 प्राणजीवन ! त्या पोढशी, हु तो तळासीश पाय. माणीगर०
 प्रीतमदास दया तणा श्रीब्रजराजकुमार !
 घणा दिवसनी होस छे पूरी प्राणाधार ! माणीगर०

Another popular lyric runs thus

What he finds in me I do not know Again and again he stares at me,
and he finds my face sweet

When I go to fetch water he follows me Unasked, he helps me with
the pot, scolding or spurning does not affect him, and flimsy pretexts
bring him to my house

When he sees me, he comes running and puts his necklace round my
neck Finding me alone he falls at my feet, begging humbly for a trivial
favour

Oh sister mine, I find him wherever I go The Lord of Dayā will not
leave me in peace ¹⁶

And in an age when Dhiro and Bhojo sang of death, the
poet utters the gospel of love "Love will only flow out
of the heart of him who is born of the essence of love" ¹⁷

At the time when the aged Dayārām was singing his
garabīs at Dabhoi, a new spirit was abroad and a new age
had already been ushered in ¹⁸

Old Gujarāt died with Dayārām, from its ashes, new
Gujarāt, phoenix-like, was born with Narmadāshankar

NOTE A MINOR POETS

The principal among the minor authors and their notable works may
be mentioned Devidās (1604), the author of *Rukminīharan*, Śivadās
Vīrji, the author of *Surekhāharan* and Haridās, the author of *Śītāvirah*
(1666), both pupils of Premānand, Mukund, the author of *Bhaktamālā*

૧૬ હુ શુ જાણુ જે વહાલે મુજમા શુ દોઠુ ?
વારે વારે સામુ ભાલે મુખ લાગ મીઠું હુ શુ જાણુ.
હુ જાઉ જલ ભરવા ત્યા પુઠે પુઠે આવે,
વગર બોલાવ્યો વાલો બ્હેડલુ ચડાવે હુ શુ જાણુ.
વહુ ને તરછોડુ તોયે રીસ ન લાવે ,
કાઠકાઠ મિથે મારે ઘેર આવી બોલાવે હુ શુ જાણુ.
દૂર થકી દેખી વાલો મુને દોડ્યા આવી દોટે ,
પોતાની માઠા કાઠી પહેરાવે મારી કોટે હું શુ જાણુ.
મને એકલડી દેખી ત્યા મારે પાલવે લાગે ,
રક થઈ કાઠ કાઠ મારી પાસે માગે. હું શુ જાણુ.
મુને જ્યા જાતી જાણે ત્યા એ આવી ઢૂકે ;
બંની ! દયાનો પ્રીતમ મારી કેડ નવ મૂકે હુ શુ જાણુ.

૧૭ જે કોઈ પ્રેમઅશ અવતરે, પ્રેમરસ તેના ઝરમા ઠરે

(1665), Vallabhabhāṭ (1700), the author of well-known *garabīs*, Kālidās (c 1725), the author of *Prahlādākhyān*, Bapu Saheb Gaekvād (1779-1843), a member of the ruling family of Baroda, the author of many well-known *bhājans*, Girādhār (1787-1852), the author of a well-known Gujarātī rendering of *Ramāyana*, Mukṭānand (1761-1824), the author of *Uddhavagītā*, Nishkulānand (1821) and Manjukesānand, the followers of Svāmīnārāyan. Among poetesses may be mentioned Divālībāi (1791), Rādhābāi (1834), Kṛishnābāi, and Gauṛībāi (1759) who was a Vedāntin and an adept in Yoga.

NOTE B THE BARODA FORGERIES

With the financial aid of the Baroda State many Old Gujarātī works were edited and published by R B Hargovinddas D Kantawala, D B Keshavlal Dhruva, Nathashankar P Shastri and Chhotalal Narbheram Bhatt working in collaboration, in the volumes of the *Prāchīn Kāvya Trāmāsik* (started in 1884) and the *Prāchīn Kāvya-mālā* (started in 1888). But soon after their publication, doubts were raised regarding the genuineness of some of these works. Particularly Narsimhrao Divatia in a very searching scrutiny of the plays attributed to Premānand completely exploded their genuineness. In the first edition I had occasion to doubt the authenticity of the works attributed to Vallabha. Pt K K Shastri has in an exhaustive study of the apocryphal works, indicated their spuriousness. Acute controversies on this point occupied for several years the attention of the literary circles of the last generation. The spurious character of most of these suspected works (they are listed at the end) is demonstrated on the following grounds: (1) Nobody has ever seen the original manuscripts of these works and in all probability they are non-existent, (2) the style, language, idiom and literary technique of most of these works clearly betray modern and artificial traits, (3) the circumstances under which these works were published are such as would invite strong suspicion regarding their genuineness, (4) the information supplied by the editors regarding the personal history and literary activity of the authors of these works involves many palpable contradictions, (5) most of these works contain some covert clue suggesting that the author of these works is a pretender. It is difficult to trace the individual authorship of each of these works but two facts appear incontrovertible: (i) these works are neither of the poets concerned nor composed during their period, (ii) they alone contain certain autobiographical details which the older poets never dealt with and they alone weave romantic biographical incidents round the life of these poets—an entirely modern technique. These are clearly intended to build up a literary tradition where none existed. They have a common base for literary authorship which is attributed to Nathashankar and Chhotalal.

Narsimh Maheto *Govindagaman, Suratasamgrām*

Premānand *Hāramālā, Lakṣmanāharan, Saptamaskandh, Rasyaṣṛṅgā-
khyān, Draupadī-haran, Astavakrākhyān, Subhadrāharan,
Mārkaṇḍeyapurān, Māṇdhātākhyān, Śāmal-sā no Moto
Vṇāh, (Dramas) Rosadarsikā-Satyabhāmākhyān, Pāñcālī-
prasannākhyān, Tapatyākhyān*

Vallabh *Mitradharmākhyān, Yudhisthir Vrkodarasamvād, Kuntī-
prasannākhyān, Duḥśāsanrudhirpānākhyān, Yaksapras-
nottar, Mārutvīṇay*

Some works of Ratnesvara, Vīrjī, Haridās, Dvārakādās, Rādhābāi
and Dīvālībāi are also spurious

APPENDIX I

Stanzas attributed to Utpalarāja, Muñja, Vākpati and Vākpatirāja in anthologies and works on poetics and dramaturgy

Note The following abbreviations have been used in the notes to these stanzas —

Kvs *Kavīndravacanāsamuccaya*
Sbhv *Subhāsitāvalī*
Skm *Saduktikānāmṛta* (Ed Sharma)
Smv *Sūktimuktāvalī* (Ed G O S)
Śp *Śārngadhara-paddhati*

अग्रे गीत सरसकवय पाद्वन्तो दाक्षिणात्या
पृष्ठे लीलावलयरणित चामरग्राहिणीनाम् ।
यद्येतत्स्यात्कुरु भवरसास्वादनं लम्पटत्वं
नो चेच्चेत प्रविश परमब्रह्मणि प्रार्थनैषा ॥ १ ॥

अहौ वा हारे वा बलवति रिपौ वा सुहृदि वा
मणौ वा लोष्ठे वा कुसुमशयने वा दूषदि वा ।
तृणे वा स्त्रैणे वा मम समदृशो यान्तु दिवसा
क्वचित्पुण्यारण्ये शिवशिवशिवेति प्रजपत ॥ २ ॥

उत्तसकौतुकरसेन विलासिणीना
लूनानि यस्य न नखैरपि पल्लवानि ।
उद्यानमण्डनतरो सहकार स त्व-
मङ्गारकारकरगोचरता गतोऽसि ॥ ३ ॥

कान्ताया करजं कपोलफलके पत्रावली कल्पिता
केलिद्युतपणीकृतो विहरता पीत स विम्बाधर ।
स्वेदाद्रौकृतचन्दनस्तनतटः सानन्दमालिङ्गितो
निर्विष्टा विषया शिवात्ममहसि न्यस्त मन सप्रति ॥ ४ ॥

कुतस्त्वमनु क स्वत स्वमिति किं न यत्कस्यचि-
त्किमिच्छसि पदत्रय ननु भुवा किमित्यल्पया ।
द्विजस्य शमिनो मम त्रिभुवन तदित्याशयो
हरेर्जयति निहनुतः प्रकटितश्च वक्रोक्तिभिः ॥ ५ ॥

खर्वग्रन्थिविमुक्तसन्धिविकसद्वक्ष स्फुरत्कौस्तुभ
निर्यन्नाभिसरोजकुड्मलकुटीगम्भीरसामध्वनि ।
पात्रावाप्तिसमुत्सुकेन बलिना सानन्दमालोकित
पायाद्व क्रमवर्धमानमहिमाश्चर्यं मुरारेर्वपु ॥ ६ ॥

चटच्चटिति चर्मणि च्छमिति चोच्छलच्छोणिते
धगद्धगिति मेदसि स्फुटतरोस्थिषु ष्ठादिति ।
पुनातु भवतो हरेरमरवैरिनाथोरसि
क्वणत्करजपञ्जरक्रकचकाषजन्मा रव ॥ ७ ॥

च्युतकर्णशिरोरुहावतसैनिबिडस्वेदजलार्द्रगण्डलेखं ।
असकृन्मणिकुट्टिमोदरे सा दिवस कन्दुककेलिभिर्निनाय ॥ ८ ॥

जयति स मदलेखोच्छृङ्खलप्रेमरामा-
ललितसुरतलीलादैवत पुष्पचाप ।
त्रिभुवनजयमिद्धौ यस्य शृङ्गारमूर्ते-
रुपकरणमपूर्वं माल्यमिन्दुमधूनि ॥ ९ ॥

तस्यास्तापमह नृशस कथयाम्येणीदृशस्ते कथ
पद्मिन्यास्सरस दल विनिहत यस्यास्सतापोरसि ।
आदौ शुष्यति सकुचत्यनु ततश्चूर्णत्वमापद्यते
पश्चान्मुमुंरता दधद्दहति च श्वासावधूतं सखीम् ॥ १० ॥

तापात्पिण्डतविग्रहेव विशतिच्छाया तरुणा तले
रुद्ध स्वाश्रयपक्षपातकृतिभिः पद्मैरपामातप ।
अद्यान्त पुरयोषिता मधुमदोत्सेकात्कपोलोदरे
द्वित्रे स्वेदलवैरुदञ्चितमहो सूर्यो ललाटं तप ॥ ११ ॥

तुल्यैवेश्वरसेवा कर्म न विद्मः पुरा कृत कीदृक् ।
भृङ्गगी यदास्थिशेषो भृशतरमकृशश्च कूष्माण्डः ॥ १२ ॥

दष्ट्रासकटवज्रघर्घरललज्जिह्वाभृतो हव्यभुग्-
ज्वालाभास्वरभूरिकेशरसटाभारस्य दैत्यद्रुह ।
व्यावल्गाद्वलवद्धिरण्यकशिपुक्रोडस्थलीपाटन-
स्पष्टप्रस्फुटदास्थपञ्जररवक्रूरा नखा पान्तु वः ॥ १३ ॥

दासे कृतागसि भवेदुचितः प्रभूणा
पादप्रहार इति सुन्दरि नास्मि द्वये ।
उद्यत्कठोरपुलकाङ्कुर कण्टकाग्रै-
र्यत्खिद्यते तव पद ननु सा व्यथा मे ॥ १४ ॥

देवि त्वं कुपिता त्वमेव कुपिता कोऽन्य पृथिव्या गुरु-
मार्ता त्वं जगता त्वमेव जगता माता न वित्तोपर ।
देवि त्वं परिहासकेलिकलहेनन्ता त्वमेवेत्यथ
ज्ञातानन्तपदो नमञ्जलधिजा शौरिश्चिर पातु व ॥ १५ ॥

नखक्रकचदारुणस्फुटितदैत्यवक्ष स्थल
क्षरक्षतजनिर्झरप्रतिविभावितस्वाकृते ।
हरेरपरकेशरिक्षुभितचेतस पातु व
सरोष ताधरभ्रुकुटिभङ्गभीम मुखम् ॥ १६ ॥

न ज्योत्स्ना न च मालती न दयिता नो वल्लकीपञ्चम-
स्ताम्बूल न विलेपन न च रह केलिर्न मुक्तालता ।
नो वा सत्कविसूक्तयो मम तथा हर्तुं क्षमन्ते मन
पुण्यैरुन्मिषिता चराचरगुरोर्भक्तिर्यथा शूलिन ॥ १७ ॥

नि सृत्याहवसागरादथ पुन ससृत्य पृथ्वीतल
कृत्वाधो हिमशैलमीश्वरशिर शीताशुलेखामपि ।
गङ्गोव स्मृतजन्मभूमिरमरं साश्चर्यमालोकिता
कीर्तिस्ते प्रतिलोभलङ्घितवियद्ब्रह्माण्डमारोहति ॥ १८ ॥

परार्थे य पीडामनुभवति निर्व्याजमधुरो
यदीय सर्वेषामिह खलु विकारोप्यभिमत ।
न संप्राप्तो वृद्धि स यदि हतदैवात्समुचिता
किमिक्षोर्दोषोय स पुनरगुणाया मरुभुव ॥ १९ ॥

पुन प्रादुर्भावादनुमितमिदं जन्मनि पुरा
पुरारे न प्रायः क्वचिदपि भवन्त प्रणतवान् ।
नमञ्जन्मन्यस्मिन्नहमतनुरग्रेप्यनतिभाङ्ग-
महेश क्षन्तव्य तदिदमपराधद्वयमपि ॥ २० ॥

प्रणयकुपिता दृष्ट्वा देवीं ससम्भ्रमविस्मित-
स्त्रिभुवनगुरुर्भूत्या सद्य प्रणामपरोऽभवत् ।
नमितशिरसो गङ्गागालीके तथा चरणाहता-
ववतु भवतस्त्यक्षस्यैतद्विलक्षमवस्थितम् ॥ २१ ॥

प्रेङ्गलद्भास्वरकेशरौघरचितत्रैलोक्य सन्ध्यातपो
ब्रह्माण्डोदररोधिघर्घरसघूत्कारप्रचण्डध्वनि ।
स्फूर्जद्बज्रकठोरघोरनखरक्षुण्णासुरोरस्थली-
रक्तास्वादविदीर्णदीर्घरसनः पायान्नासिहो जगत् ॥ २२ ॥

मात्सर्यतीव्रतिभिरावृतदृष्टयो ये
ते कस्य नाम न खला व्यथयन्ति चेत ।
मन्ये विमुच्य गलकन्दलमिन्दुमौले-
यैषा सदा वचसि बलगति कालकूट ॥ २३ ॥

यत्पादा शिरसा न केन विधृता पृथ्वीभृता मध्यत-
स्तस्मिन्भास्वति राहुणा कवलिते लोकत्रयीचक्षुषि ।
खद्योतै स्फुरितं तमोभिरुदित ताराभिरुज्जृम्भित
घूकैरुत्थितमा किमत्र करवै कि केन नो चेष्टितम् ॥ २४ ॥

यल्लीलाकमलाहतौ प्रमुदित यन्मन्मथस्यास्पद
यत्कान्ताप्रणयापराधकलहे पर्याप्तकौतूहलम् ।
यत्प्रेमाद्रवधूविलासललितभ्रूलास्यबद्धस्पृह
तच्चेत स्मरवैरिभग्नसदनप्रान्ते स्थितीवञ्छिति ॥ २५ ॥

रतिश्रमपरिस्खलत्समदसिद्धसीमन्तिनी-
स्तनच्युतमिवाशुक विशदपथरागद्युति ।
अयं दिशि शतक्रतो कुबलयाक्षि बिम्बारुण-
स्त्वदीयदशनच्छदच्छविरुदेति बालातप ॥ २६ ॥

ललितकण्ठनिवेशितदोर्लत करतलाकलितैकपयोधर ।
मृगदृशो दशनच्छदवासित मधु पपौ मदनोत्सवमीश्वर ॥ २७ ॥

श्रेयोस्याश्चिरमस्तु मन्दरगिरेर्माघानि पाशर्वैरिय
मावाष्टम्भि महोम्भि फणिपतेर्मलिपि लालाविषै ।
इत्याकृतजुष श्रिय जलनिधेरर्धोत्थिता पश्यतो
वाचोन्त स्फुरिता बर्हिर्विकृतिभिव्यक्ता हरे पान्तु व ॥ २८ ॥

सेय द्यौस्तदिदं शशाङ्कदिनकृच्चिह्नं नभ सा क्षिति-
स्तत्पातालतल त एव गिरयस्तेम्भोधरास्ता दिश ।
इत्थ नाभिविनिर्गतेन सशिर कम्पाद्भुत वेधसा
स्यान्तश्च बहिश्च दृष्टमखिल त्रैलोक्यमव्यात्स व ॥ २९ ॥

हृताञ्जनश्यामरुचस्तवैते स्थूला किमित्यश्रुकणा पतन्ति ।
भृङ्गा इव व्यायतपङ्क्तयो ते तनीयसीं रोमलता श्रयन्ति ॥ ३० ॥

NOTES

- 1 Skm, V 58 5 उत्पलराज, Sp, 4176 भर्तृहरि, Padyaracanā, 43:-
भर्तृहरि, Satakatrāya III 67

- St 2 *Skm*, V 60 5 मुञ्ज , *Śp*, 4102 भर्तृहरि, *Sbhv*, 3413 anon, *Padhyaracanā*, 62 भर्तृहरि, *Satakatraya*, III 40, Ksemendra, *Aucityavicāracarcā*, St 16 उत्पलराज
- St 3 *Śp*, 1017 उत्पलराज , *Smv*, p 109 anon
- St 4 *Skm*, V 61 6 मुञ्ज
- St 5 *Skm*, I 43 3 वाक्पति , *Kvs*, 36 anon
- St 6 *Skm*, I 44 5 वाक्पतिराज , *Kvs*, 36 anon
- St 7 *Skm*, I 40 2 वाक्पतिराज, *Kvs*, 28 वाक्पतिराज, *Śp*, 126 वाक्पतिराज, *Smv*, p 29 वाक्पतिराज
- St 8 *Skm*, II 79 5 मुञ्ज
- St 9 *Skm*, I 93 3 उत्पलराज
- St 10 *Kvs*, 289 उत्पलराज *Smv*, p 160 anon
- St 11 *Skm*, II 144 4 उत्पलराज
- St 12 *Skm*, IV 3 1 वाक्पति
- St 13 *Kvs*, 43 वाक्पति , *Skm*, I 41 1 दक्ष , *Śp* 4066 हनूमत्
- St 14 *Smv*, p 199 मुञ्ज , *Skm*, II 83 5 सत्यबोध , *Śp* 35 67 anon
- St 15 *Skm*, I 56 1 वाक्पति , *Kvs*, 20 वाक्पति , *Rūpagosvāmin*, *Padhyāvali*, 283 हरिहर.
- St 16 *Kvs*, 45 वाक्पतिराज
- St 17 *Skm*, I 95 2 मुञ्ज
- St 18 *Skm*, III 51 2 वाक्पति , *Smp*, p 341 धर्माशोक
- St 19 *Skm*, V 58 5 वाक्पति , *Sbhv*, 947 यशस् , *Śp*, 1052 इन्दुराज *Bhallatasataka*, 56, *Sūktiratnahāra*, 32 63 भल्लट.
- St 20 *Skm*, I 95 1 मुञ्ज
- St 21 *Dasarūpa* (Bib Ind), p 184 वाक्पतिराज , p 186 मुञ्ज
- St 22 *Skm*, I 40 3 वाक्पतिराज
- St 23 Ksemendra, *Kavikanthābharana*, II 1 उत्पलराज
- St 24 *Smv*, p 63 मुञ्ज , *Śp* 747 परिमल
- St 25 *Skm*, V 61 2 मुञ्ज
- St 26 *Skm*, II. 143 5 मुञ्ज
- St 27 *Skm*, II 123 5 मुञ्ज
- St 28 *Kvs*, 27 वाक्पतिराज, *Skm*, p 47 anon
- St 29 *Skm*, I 63 1 वाक्पतिराज.
- St 30 Ksemendra, *Suvrttatilaka*, II 6 उत्पलराज

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